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The Community College as "Glorified High School"

EDITORIAL

WHO among persons long at work in a junior college or otherwise long associated with the junior-college movement has not heard the institution disparagingly nicknamed a "glorified high school"? The writer heard this by-name cynically applied by teachers and administrators in traditional colleges a quarter-century ago, while making his nation-wide study of the movement under subvention of the Commonwealth Fund, and he has heard it recurrently ever since. Within the month, a presumed educational leader in a state in which establishment of a system of junior colleges is under consideration was heard to express the hope that the outcome would be "some real colleges and not just a bunch of glorified high schools." Of rather similar snobbish stripe is the fear now often voiced in traditional collegiate circles that the community college advocated by the

President's Commission on Higher Education will mean a "debased college currency."

Explanation of the disparagement lies in the fact that the model for the community college in the mind of the critic is the typical liberal arts college with its socio-economically and intellectually selected student body and its restricted liberal arts and pre-professional curriculum, while the concept of the community college departs widely from this traditional institution. In terms of students served, the community college enrolls not merely the preparatory groups who plan continuance through senior college and university, but several other groups not contemplating continuance. As recommended by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, besides the preparatory group, the developing community college

should serve persons who wish to prepare for various technical and semiprofessional occupations; persons who can profit from further training in the occupations for which high schools provide basic preparation; persons who desire to "round out their general education before entering employment or becoming homemakers"; and "adults and older youths, mostly employed, who no longer attend school full time, but wish to continue their education during their free hours." The better junior colleges are increasingly expanding and reorganizing their offerings to meet the needs of these additional groups at the same time that they continue to serve the preparatory group so well that their "transfers" are known to do about as well in the higher institutions as do the "native" students (those who enter the senior colleges and universities as Freshmen). Through the new institution the college base is being greatly broadened.

Because of the widening service of the community college, as indicated by the diverse groups in the

population represented in its student body and the spread of its program to meet their needs, it seems quite fitting to refer to it as "glorified," but in a sincere sense and hardly with the cynical implication intended by persons unfriendly because ignorant of the significance of the movement. It is glorified in the sense of being "exalted" or "magnified," near-synonyms of "glorified" and words in harmony with the comprehensive democratic service provided by the new institution.

Those of us who regard the junior college, or community college, in its dynamic aspect as mainly an upward extension of secondary education are reminded of the not uncommon reference to the high school as the "people's college." This designation was first applied almost a century ago, when the public high school was first looming into prominence. We see in the developments extending the local systems upward, thus glorifying the high school, consummation of that century-old prophecy.

LEONARD V. KOOS

Administering an Audio-visual Program

ROBERT DE KIEFFER

FOR the past several years there has been increasing interest in the entire field of audio-visual education. This interest has been intensified by the extensive and successful utilization of audio-visual teaching methods by the armed forces during the recent war years. Educators in junior colleges have gradually accepted these tools to learning. With the increased use of audio-visual materials, consideration must be given to the development of an organized program to insure their effectiveness. Many a college teacher desirous of using audio-visual materials for the enrichment of his class presentations has found himself hamstrung in his desire because of a poorly conceived and administered program. If an audio-visual program is to meet with any degree of success, it must not only be sanctioned by the administrative authorities of the col-

lege but be backed by their whole-hearted co-operation.

No one administrative organization is applicable to all institutions. The type of pattern developed will depend to a large measure on the size of the institution, its educational philosophy, staff-and-line responsibilities, and other variables. Nevertheless, the problems of administration remain the same.

Selecting a Director or Co-ordinator

In the development of an adequate audio-visual program the following factors must be considered: purchase of equipment; procurement of materials; facilities provided for storage, work area, and preview room; organization of routines; and the working-out of utilization techniques. If these things are to be accomplished, some administrative channelization must be planned.

Regardless of the size of the college, one person must be responsible for the co-ordination of the program. This co-ordinator or director may be selected from the teaching or the library staff, although in larger institutions the services of a specialist may be required. It is not

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enough for the director to be familiar with the entire curriculum; he must also understand how audio-visual materials apply to it.

Administrative and supervisory abilities are necessary characteristics for successful functioning of his office. The director should possess qualities of co-operation, initiative, showmanship, and understanding, which enable him to be flexible yet firm when presented with instructional problems. Some mechanical ability is desirable because he will be called on to give instruction in operation or to make minor repairs on equipment. Above all, the director should possess a strong educational background with considerable work in educational methods and procedures, psychology, school administration, and finance. Such an individual may be hard to find, but analysis of the duties and responsibilities of the director makes it clear that not *just anyone* should be charged with this office.

Duties of the Director

The first duty of the director is to make an inventory of the materials and equipment already available in the college. Often he will discover equipment which, with minor repairs, can be rehabilitated for classroom use. A thorough search may uncover slides, pictures, or models which have definite teaching value but have been forgotten.

With a complete inventory of the materials and equipment available, the director is ready to carry out the functions of his office. These are:

1. Informing the faculty about available materials.
2. Assisting the faculty in selecting materials which will meet their specific needs.
3. Ordering materials not owned by the college.
4. Scheduling materials and equipment to be used on the campus.
5. Assisting instructors to develop effective techniques in utilizing materials.
6. Preparing the budget.
7. Providing for effective evaluation of materials used.
8. Developing research projects on specific utilization problems.
9. Helping departments prepare bibliographies of suitable materials.
10. Expanding the use of varied aids to instruction throughout the college.
11. Training students and faculty in the operation of equipment.
12. Collecting, cataloguing and storing of films, filmstrips, slides, recordings, transcriptions, and other materials.
13. Developing adequate classroom facilities for effective presentation of aids.
14. Organizing long-range plans for the continuous development of the program.
15. Administering all details relative to carrying out the entire program.

If the junior college is a division of a larger educational unit, the duties of the director may be somewhat different. In this situation the

director, instead of being responsible for the over-all program, may act as a co-ordinator in a liaison capacity with the central administrative office.

Housing the Audio-visual Library

Adequate housing for the audio-visual library is of importance, not only in terms of its efficient operation, but in terms of its economy and use. Too often this library is located in a dark basement (where dampness has devastating effects on sensitive equipment) at the edge of the campus outside the general path of faculty members. To be of maximum value, the audio-visual library should be centrally located, with sufficient space for storage, cataloguing, shipping of materials, and repair and maintenance of equipment. The library should have its own service entrance to facilitate an easy flow of equipment and materials. In addition to the work area, adjoining space should be provided where faculty members can preview new materials, hold conferences, or learn to operate various types of equipment.

Equipping Classrooms

The question of the advisability of equipping all classrooms for using projected visual materials as opposed to providing special projection rooms is often discussed. If we assume that audio-visual materials are tools of instruction to be used

as complementary materials in the communication of ideas, it naturally follows that they should be used in the classroom situation. The use of projection rooms detracts from the educational tenor of the material, and students obtain the mistaken idea that they are being entertained by seeing a "show." Equipping all classrooms for the projecting of visual materials is somewhat costly, but it will pay dividends in terms of effective utilization and student learning. If it is impossible to equip all classrooms, the use of special projection rooms should be regarded as a temporary expedient.

In the equipping of classrooms for the projecting of visual materials, several factors should be considered. The problem of darkening classrooms is a primary concern. It has been found that inexpensive blue denim hung on curtain rods provides sufficient darkness, allows for ventilation, and acts as a sound-deadening device, thereby aiding the acoustical properties of the room. Venetian blinds have not proved satisfactory. They are costly, become worn and inoperative, and do not eliminate sufficient light. Black window shades operating in grooved panels are effective darkening devices, but, unless the building is equipped with light-proof window grills or an internal ventilating system, the room soon becomes stuffy.

Electrical outlets should be pro-

vided at fifteen-foot intervals, and light switches should be located at both the front and the rear of the room.

A screen of good quality is essential for best projection. Portable tripod screens can be readily used. However, emphasis should be placed on procuring permanent wall-type roller screens in rooms where extensive use is being made of projected materials. These should be considered as much a part of the furnishings of the room as are blackboards.

Also included as part of the furniture of such rooms is a projector stand. These stands can be made in any school carpenter shop at relatively low cost. If all rooms in a group using projection equipment are on one floor, wheeled carts can be built, with shelf space which will make the carts suitable for projection tables and for storage of equipment when not in use.

If the acoustical properties of a room are poor, sheets of soft, unpainted wallboard placed on the side and rear walls will improve the situation. For large rooms special acoustical treatment may be necessary.

Equipping an entire school for effective projection of visual materials may be a long process, but it should be included in the over-all plans for the program. Blueprints of new buildings to be constructed should be carefully scrutinized to insure the inclusion of all features

required for effective projection and utilization of audio-visual materials.

Equipment and Material Requirements

No arbitrary list of the number and the kinds of material and equipment for all schools of certain sizes can be made. The selection and procurement of visual aids should be determined by co-operative planning of the instructors and the director.

When new equipment is purchased, such factors as performance, cost, portability, and repair facilities should be considered. Be sure that the equipment does the job it purports to do by trying it out under normal teaching conditions in the rooms in which it will be used. For ease in stocking parts and replacements, it is wise to standardize specifications. Generally, equipment which includes a variety of attachments for various types of projection should not be purchased. For approximately the same price, separate projectors which will allow for more extensive use of existing equipment can be obtained.

Administratively, it is advisable for all audio-visual equipment to be centrally controlled rather than departmentally owned. This will allow for greater use of existing equipment, standardization of the equipment, centralized repair and maintenance, and better trade-in possibilities. Centralization of ad-

ministration concerning equipment and materials should not preclude its decentralized operation. These aids serve only one purpose—use at the time they are needed. Specific departments which make extensive and continuous use of a particular type of equipment should be supplied with the needed materials, to be turned in at the end of the year for centralized storage and overhaul. All other equipment may be stored in the audio-visual library or so "spotted" around the campus as to be readily accessible when the need arises. If distances are great, such "spotting" will prove economical in terms of avoiding damage by constant moving.

Movement and Operation of Equipment

After equipment has been procured, moving it from classroom to classroom, as well as operating it, becomes an administrative problem. If the plan of "spotting" equipment is followed, the moving problem is somewhat lessened. However, if all equipment is distributed from the audio-visual library, arrangements must be made to have it moved from place to place. The amount of equipment owned and the use to which it is put will, in part, determine the type of porter service needed. In many institutions janitorial service has been found sufficiently dependable. Others use students, not only to operate the equipment, but to move

it from one location to another. The advantage in using janitors or porters for such work is that they are available to move equipment during class hours.

The actual operation of audio-visual equipment in the classroom can be handled in one of several ways or any combination of them. Some instructors prefer to operate their own equipment. Others would never use audio-visual materials at all if it were necessary for them to do their own projecting.

Student-operator clubs organized in many institutions have met with varying degrees of success. These clubs operate in several ways: (1) They are considered as extra-curriculum activities, for which no payment is given. (2) They are considered as a service organization, for which payment is given. (3) They are considered as laboratory periods for physics or photography classes.

In some instances it may be found necessary to hire non-student part-time personnel on an hourly basis. Young married women who desire to supplement their incomes can be trained for such work. If showings run from ten to fifteen minutes, these women can be employed effectively for the remainder of the hour at clerical work in the audio-visual library.

Any one or any combination of these plans will work efficiently if adequate provisions are made for scheduling the services in advance.

Forms and Procedure

Any audio-visual program, to function smoothly, must develop a variety of record forms. These forms should be simple, eliminating as much red tape as possible. The teacher should be able to get and use audio-visual materials from the library with ease. The following basic forms are needed:

1. **INSTRUCTOR-REQUEST FORM.**—All orders for material or equipment should be made in writing to eliminate any misunderstanding between the library and instructor. These forms should be received by the audio-visual library in time to allow for ordering the desired material. The form should provide space for indicating the title or type of material required and the date, the hour, and the place at which the material is to be used.

2. **BOOKING-REQUEST FORM.**—Materials such as films, filmstrips, and transcriptions not owned by the college have to be ordered from various rental libraries. It will prove valuable if standard forms are prepared upon which booking requests are made. The form should have places for listing exactly the materials needed and the dates on which they are to be used. Confirmation should be requested.

3. **CONFIRMATION FORMS.**—When bookings for specific material have been confirmed by the rental library, the instructor must be notified. Again the form should provide space for entering the date, the hour, and the place for which reservation has been made, the title of the material, and the running time.

4. **REGRET FORM.**—If the rental library is unable to supply the desired material, a regret form should be sent to the instructor concerned. This form

should show the first date on which the material is available and should provide spaces for the instructor to check whether he wishes to order the film for the first available date, to obtain a booking for some other specified date, or to cancel the order.

5. **SCHEDULING FORM.**—To enable smooth operation and utilization of both material and equipment, a daily schedule of all showings must be prepared. This form may be a large sheet of paper punched for a loose-leaf binder. Vertical columns are provided to show place of showing, equipment needed, operator, film title, number of reels, and name of instructor. Horizontal spaces are provided for each hour (8:00, 9:00, etc.). Such a schedule is essential, especially as the program develops and more material and equipment are used.

6. **EVALUATION FORM.**—All film, slidefilm, and transcriptions should be evaluated for effectiveness in the classroom situation. On the form prepared for this appraisal, the instructor is asked to state briefly the purpose that he hoped the film would accomplish, the degree to which the film achieved the purpose, the quality of the film (excellent, very good, average), the extent of class preparation necessary before showing the film, the effectiveness of the film in provoking class activity, and any other appropriate comments. A file of all evaluations should be maintained to assist instructors to appraise their work and to plan for further use of materials.

Selecting Teaching Materials

Since the selection of specific materials depends on the objectives of the course and the needs of the instructor in accomplishing these objectives, it is not the function of the

director to select the materials to fit the curriculum. Such selection should be left to the individual instructor or to a committee of instructors within the department, in co-operation with the director. It is essential that all materials be pre-viewed before classroom use regardless of the titles or the thumbnail reviews found in catalogues.

In most instructional areas, vast quantities of material are available. A complete listing of the sources would be impossible in the space of this article. However, there are a few general references which may be of value:

Your state university or state department of public instruction can furnish information concerning film libraries in your state.

The Blue Book of 16-mm. Films. Chicago 1: Educational Screen, Inc.

Directory of United States Government Films. Washington 25: U.S. Film Service, Federal Security Agency.

Educational Film Guide. New York: H. W. Wilson Co. (950 University Ave.).

"Educators Guide to Free Films." Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service.

Sources of Educational Films and Equipment. Circular No. 150. Washington: Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

Renting versus Purchase of Films

Whether an institution should rent or buy films is a question which each school must decide for itself. The purchase price for a one-reel, black-and-white, sound motion pic-

ture film ranges from \$45 to \$75. This same film may be rented from extension divisions of state universities for from 50 cents to \$3 per day of use. When the problem of renting versus purchasing a film arises, the following factors must be considered:

1. How many times a year is it rented?
2. What is the rental price?
3. What is the purchase price?
4. What will be the life of the film? (Life of a film is two-fold—physical life and dated life. If the film is handled carefully, physical life can be computed from seven to ten years. Dated life refers to characteristics of the film, such as dress design, hair-styling, modes of transportation, etc. Some excellent films may become dated within a few years after production.)
5. What will be the total cost per showing if the film is purchased?

Two additional factors which must be taken into consideration are the immediate availability of the films when needed and their increased utilization when they are owned by the college. If funds are available, it would be well to purchase a basic library of films and rent only those titles which are not used continuously. It is advisable for a school just starting its audio-visual program to rent films first and later build up a library of those films which have proved to be in greatest demand.

Finance

The problem of adequate financial support is one of the major

obstacles in the development of comprehensive audio-visual programs in schools and colleges throughout the country. The audio-visual program should be assured of regular financial support in the budget, the idea being kept in mind that long-range planning is imperative. The budget should be worked out with the co-operation of the director of the program and should include allowances for staff, purchase of equipment, purchase and rental of materials, repair and maintenance of existing equipment, and development of classroom facilities for adequate projection. Although separate funds should be earmarked for audio-visual materials, it should be remembered that such expenditures are not "extras" which can be put aside at the slightest provocation but that they are instructional materials just as definitely as are textbooks, maps, and library books.

In-service Training

The finest equipment and the most workable organization may be of little value if the audio-visual materials are not effectively utilized in the classroom. Many instructors have never used these materials. They may not even know what is available in their own subject-matter area. Many instructors are apathetic toward using these aids primarily because they are afraid to display their ignorance of correct

usage. Others are afraid of the machines and their operation.

A program of in-service training which will acquaint teachers with audio-visual materials and their effective utilization is essential. Classes in the operation of various types of equipment can be given. When instructors understand the basic theory of different types of equipment, with advantages and limitations, they more readily appreciate the media with which they are working. Frequently during such a training period, instructors will see applications of equipment which may solve a difficult teaching problem. Demonstrations and workshops are effective methods for informing faculty members on how these materials can be used in the classroom.

Time and energy expended in the development and the carrying-out of an in-service training program will result in better teaching.

Evaluating the Program

It would be foolish for a doctor to administer medicine to a patient and wait several years to evaluate its effectiveness. So it is with an audio-visual program. If a continuous program of evaluation is carried on, weaknesses can be identified and necessary action taken to correct them. Although there are many ways by which the evaluation of the program can be conducted, the issues considered will fall into two

major categories: availability and quality.

Availability

1. Is there one person who is responsible for carrying out the program?
2. Does the audio-visual library have adequate housing, centrally located, where materials and equipment can be ordered, stored, and demonstrated?
3. Does the college own equipment necessary to carry out its program effectively?
4. Is the equipment centrally controlled but decentralized in its use?
5. Are forms and procedures simple but adequate to insure effective administration?
6. Are instructors able to get materials and equipment easily and promptly?
7. Are classrooms equipped for using audio-visual materials effectively?
8. Are provisions made for training instructors, student assistants, or both, to operate the equipment?
9. Is the program assured of long-range financial support, adequate to meet the needs of staff, equipment, materials, and building considerations?

Quality

1. Are the materials which have been selected compatible with the objectives of the institution?
2. Do the materials being used meet the needs of specific instructional problems?
3. Are faculty members trained in the effective utilization of various audio-visual materials?
4. Are new materials constantly being previewed and evaluated as to their value for the curriculum?

5. Are research projects conducted to determine the effectiveness of specific materials in improving the instruction?

The development of an audio-visual program demands a great amount of long-range planning. It is impossible to expect that a full-fledged service can be organized overnight. However, careful consideration given to the details of administration and supervision will pay dividends in instructional improvement.

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Wanted: A Family Name

WILLIAM T. BOYCE

FOR at least two decades there has been a growing dissatisfaction with the name "junior college." Much time has been spent in trying to find a more suitable generic name. In California most of the larger junior colleges were too impatient to wait for state or nation-wide agreement on the issue and shed the "junior" as easily as a katydid sheds his skin in the spring. While they have gone about this independently, the brief time in which the conversion took place would suggest to one unacquainted with the facts that there had been some concerted action.

The new names follow two patterns. In the larger cities the name "city college" has been adopted; in other centers the change is usually effected by simply dropping the word "junior" or, in the case of newly organized institutions, by not including the word in the name. That city colleges are not financed exclusively by the city, as the name implies, does not seem to matter. Nor does it matter whether or not

there are other junior colleges in the city having the same function and drawing support from the state and district in identically the same manner as the one junior college distinguished by the name "city college." Because four-year private colleges frequently bear the name of the city in which they are located, objection has been raised to the junior colleges doing the same unless they use some family designation to mark them as a two-year college. This objection, however, has not deterred institutions from dropping the type designation from their name.

The American junior-college scene is indeed a strange one. There are more than 650 junior colleges in which are enrolled a half-million students. These colleges are organized in a strong, vigorous national association, which publishes one of America's best educational journals. A considerable body of statutory law has been enacted for the definition and regulation of public junior colleges. A number of books dealing with junior-college history, organization, curriculum, and function have been published, and the literature concerning the

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junior college in educational magazines, monographs, and various organization proceedings is abundant. Yet many of the individual junior colleges have repudiated the name as onerous if not harmful.

The Objection to Junior

The word "junior" is not indicative of a separate and independent unit in the American school system. Among the many definitions of the word "junior" which Webster's dictionary supplies are these: "Lower in standing or in rank; as, a *junior partner*"; "Of more recent date, and hence, of a mortgage, lien, or the like, inferior or subordinate as to right of preference"; "younger . . . opposed to *senior* or *elder*." Undoubtedly it is this latter meaning, "opposed to *senior*," that makes the word unacceptable when applied to a college that is independent in intent and practice. The writer recalls the question posed by Dr. Robert Sproul, president of the University of California, more than a decade ago. A special committee was holding a meeting on the University campus at which the question of finding a substitute name for "junior college" was under consideration. The President was asked if he would sit in with the committee for a brief time. The chairman explained the question to President Sproul and asked for his opinion. Instantly he replied, "Junior to what?"

Here is the crux of the problem. A junior high school is junior to the senior high school; to what is the junior college junior? In the early years of its history the junior college was indeed *junior*, junior to the upper division of the university in which it was established or, by extension, to other universities and higher colleges. But, as conceived by its early proponents in California at least, it was never junior to the university. Its position in this state and in other states of the Union has been quite as separate and unique as that of the elementary system or the high-school system. It is separate in the sense that it offers post-high-school education, not only of an academic type, but also and significantly of a vocational-terminal type. Admittedly, the offering of pre-major and pre-professional courses in preparation for upper-division work in four-year colleges is a function co-ordinate with that of the lower division of these colleges, but a co-ordinate service is not necessarily a subordinate service. By analogy, four-year colleges are not junior to graduate and professional schools, which some of their graduates attend.

There is little doubt that the limiting "junior" is a liability, and there is no surprise at the movement to discard it. But the justifying facts do not remove the anomalous position of colleges operating

under a disapproved title. A further and more serious objection to this practice is the flight of junior colleges to the ambitious "city college" on the one hand or to the typical four-year private college name on the other. Neither of these names classifies the college as to type; consequently, the advantages which accrue from a designation of a great group of institutions having a common purpose and a common identity are lost.

Community College Suggested

Whereas "junior college" is unsuited to the system of colleges denoted, the name "community college" is adequate and has special merit. The word "community" is pleasing to the ear and carries a cluster of familiar and stimulating connotations. While there is no widely accepted classification of an American community, it is generally understood to be an area having a common interest in local matters. Lloyd Allen Cook has defined a community for educational purposes:

A population aggregate, inhabiting a contiguous territory, integrated through common experience, possessing a number of basic service institutions, conscious of its local unity, and able to act in a corporate capacity.¹

¹ Lloyd Allen Cook, *Community Backgrounds of Education*, p. 27. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938.

A community, he says, is larger than a neighborhood, which may be defined as a subcommunity; it is a simpler entity than a region, which ordinarily has a great metropolis as a center.

The word "community" may seem unduly restrictive when applied to the private junior college, whose population is, in part, drawn from a wide geographical area. But it has been shown that in many of our great universities the majority of students come from the immediate community. As a rule the residence radius of a private school population varies directly with the school's size and with its years of service available for any one group of students. Consequently, the community of location of most private junior colleges is the community of residence for the majority of their students as well.

The writer suggested the adoption of "community college" in California to a representative group of junior-college administrators some fifteen years ago. While some who were present argued that the name was too indefinite, others thought it had merit. In its most excellent study of 1944, *Education for All American Youth*, the Educational Policies Commission used the name "community institute" to designate the eleven colleges in its hypothetical state of Columbia. The authors explained:

The name "community institute" is used throughout the state. . . . The term "junior college" already had a variety of meanings because of the diversity of practices in institutions bearing that title. Therefore, it was deemed advisable to use a name free from association with past practices. . . .

The outcome of the year's work was that the state department of education, with the aid of the advisory commission, was able to formulate a tentative plan for a state system of community institutes so located as to bring the majority of the youth of the state within commuting distance of one or another of the institutes.²

From this explanation it would appear that the authors did not seriously propose a change in name of the junior college. However, the word "community" struck a responsive chord in the public mind and, since the publication of the book, has received increasing recognition. Recently at the dedication of a new California junior college, a representative of the State Department of Education, in addressing the audience, repeatedly referred to the institution as "this community college" and "your community college." Never once did he use the term "junior college."

In an exposition of "Types of

² Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, pp. 353, 355. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1944.

Junior Colleges," Bethel describes the typical junior college under the name "community junior college."³ While this device does not do away with the offending "junior," it does appropriate the term "community." It remains for the President's Commission on Higher Education in its significant study published in six volumes in 1947-48 to recommend specifically the substitution of the word "community" for the word "junior." Throughout the entire study, in so far as it deals with the junior college, the former term is used. The following is a clear statement of the Commission's point of view:

Hence the President's Commission suggests the name "community college" to be applied to the institution designed to serve chiefly local community education needs. It may have various forms of organization and may have curricula of various lengths. Its dominant feature is its intimate relations to the life of the community it serves.⁴

The Commission further stated that the community college should include two-year technical insti-

³ Lawrence L. Bethel, "Types of Junior Colleges," *American Junior Colleges*, chap. i. Edited by Jesse P. Bogue. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948 (second edition).

⁴ *Organizing Higher Education*, p. 5. *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. III. A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947.

tutes and both public and private junior colleges, regardless of the methods of control. That no doubt should be left about this matter, the various types of existing institutions, totaling 648, were enumerated. They included state, district, denominational, and preparatory schools. Concerning these schools the Commission stated:

It would appear from the above that the junior college is already making a significant contribution toward meeting the needs of those who wish to continue their education in their home communities beyond the high school. They are as varied in their programs as in their forms of control, and are flexible in their adjustment to local needs.

It is assumed, then, that the present junior college is pointing the way to an improved thirteenth- and fourteenth-year program. A change of name is suggested because "junior" no longer covers one of the functions being performed. The name was adopted when the primary and often the sole function of the institution was to offer the first two years of a four-year college curriculum. Now, however, one of its primary functions is to serve the needs of students who will terminate their full-time college attendance by the end of the fourteenth year or sooner. For them a wide variety of terminal curricula has been developed. Such an institution is not well characterized by the name "junior" college.

No common pattern of the relationship of the community college to a state-wide education program can be suggested for all states.

A careful study should be made in each state of the needs for more and better educational facilities at the thirteenth- and fourteenth-year level. The state department of education, the public schools, the institutions of higher education both public and private, and interested laymen should join in making the study in order that the resulting plan shall take into account the total educational resources as well as the total needs of the state.

Only considerations of efficiency and economy should be taken into account in planning for and locating a community college. Many extraneous pressures are likely to be exerted, but the decision should be based wholly upon the need as established by the state-wide study recommended above.⁵

The most recent use of the term "community college" to come to the attention of the writer is found in the *Report of the Temporary Commission on the Need for a State University* in the State of New York. One section of the report is devoted to a "Community College Program." A brief summary will suggest the nature of the new recommendation:

11. The state should enact legislation authorizing the establishment of publicly supported community colleges, which will offer a combination of technical training and general education. The programs of such colleges should be limited to two years for full-time students, but should provide special courses and extension work for part-time students and adults. . . .

d) An objective of the community college program is to locate educa-

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

tional facilities within reach of the homes of students, thus eliminating one large item of expense, the cost of room and board. The colleges first to be established should be located in the communities where the need of facilities is greatest. Students should be permitted to attend any community college in the state, in order that those living in areas that do not have a community college may attend such an institution, and that those so desiring may attend colleges having specialized programs. . . .

g) The technical institutes of applied arts and sciences should in time be converted into community colleges, but continued on their present basis until such conversion can take place.

12. A master plan should be developed by the State University Board of Trustees, which, after approval by the Board of Regents, and by the Governor, shall serve as a long-range guide to the localities and the state in establishing and developing community colleges. This plan should be subject to revision from time to time over a period of years as changing conditions warrant.⁶

This is enough to indicate that here is proposed establishment of a large number of new institutions, identical in function and purpose to the public junior colleges of the country, which are to be called "community colleges." Even the re-

cently established technical institutes in New York State are to be a part of the community-college system, if these recommendations are adopted. It is to be noted that the name "junior college" is nowhere mentioned. New York is not going to bargain for a name that is being cast out in other states.

Is it not clear that the time has come for the national junior college association to take the necessary steps officially to lay the name "junior college" to rest in the more congenial atmosphere of educational history? Some complications will, of course, be encountered. Action by state legislatures to apply existing laws concerning junior colleges to institutions under the new name will be necessary. But surely the problems are not insurmountable. There is certainly no wisdom in accepting the heavy burden of an unsuited and unwanted name for an indefinite future. Furthermore, it now seems likely that the more suitable name, "community college," will assume an enlarging place in educational legislation and literature in spite of any tardy development in that direction by existing junior colleges. Why not adopt the more appropriate and more useful title now instead of waiting until there are no junior colleges left that are willing to bear the name?

⁶ Report of the Temporary Commission on the Need for a State University, pp. 27-28. Legislative Document (1948), No. 30. Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1948.

A Comprehensive Pattern of Vocational Education

BASIL H. PETERSON

AND

JAMES W. THORNTON, JR.

IN THE November issue of the *Junior College Journal* appeared a report of a survey of educational needs in the Orange Coast College District.¹ As a result of that survey, certain objectives were established for the college. Among these was the vocational objective: "To qualify young men and women in a period of two years or less to enter a vocational field and successfully to pursue an occupation."

Upon completion of the questionnaire survey, an extensive program of interviews was undertaken. Approximately fifty business and labor leaders in the district were interviewed; advisory committees were organized to assist in formulating and revising the specific instructional program in the several vocational fields.

From these interviews and ad-

visory committee meetings, certain salient facts emerged. It was evident that these leaders in business and industry recognized the need for programs of terminal vocational education and that they were enthusiastic in their support of efforts to develop such programs. An underlying theme in all the conferences was the insistence of laymen on practicality in vocational training. A third and somewhat surprising result of these conferences was the unanimous agreement of practical men that workers needed more than specific job skills—that parallel with vocational training it was necessary to provide broad general education. Elements of this education specifically mentioned by many of the persons interviewed included familiarity with world affairs, education for personal and family life, acquaintance with problems of economic organization, and functional skills of communication.

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¹ Basil H. Peterson and James W. Thornton, Jr., "Building a Functional Program for a Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (November, 1948), 119-24.

Vocational Training in Other Colleges

During the period when the interviews were being held, visits to a number of junior colleges in California were arranged for the purpose of studying vocational programs as they had been set up. During these visits it became clear that the objectives of vocational education as seen by the lay people within the Orange Coast College District were accepted by nearly all the junior colleges visited but that the practical interpretation of these objectives in the educational program varied widely. College administrators generally expressed themselves as dissatisfied with their own programs of vocational education.

One of the major problems in developing vocational curriculums arose from what might be called the "fragmentary approach"—the attempt to meet each separate skill within a vocational area by establishment of an educational course. So far had this tendency progressed that in one college a total of twenty-three separate semester courses were required of the student within a single two-year curriculum. To these must be added, of course, requirements in English, social studies, health, and physical education, conceived as part of general education.

Several undesirable consequences follow on this fragmentary approach to vocational education.

Since mathematics and science are usually required in terminal curriculums, common practice is to offer one course in mathematics and another in applied science for all terminal students. As a result the instructor, usually trained as a scientist or as a mathematician, feels compelled to offer a logically complete course in the subject-matter field. Each student spends a considerable portion of his time on materials of interest to others in the class but of no vocational benefit to him. Another problem inherent in this approach is that of scheduling. In almost every college visited, vocational instructors complained that one of their difficulties lay in attempting to schedule students in the manipulative courses of the specialized vocational curriculum and in the related technical and general courses required of all vocational students.

The "Job-Family" Concept

Analysis of occupational distribution and demands in the Orange Coast College District indicated that it would be uneconomic to establish training programs for single crafts. It would be difficult to recruit enough students to justify maintaining a class; it would be equally difficult to find employment opportunities for the graduates. Recent vocational-guidance research indicates, in addition, that job demands may be organized in clusters or "families" of skills,

while any man's abilities fit him for success in a variety of related occupations. The purpose of junior-college vocational education, to prepare workers to assume positions of responsibility and leadership within their occupational fields, reinforced the foregoing considerations, which point toward broadly conceived vocational offerings. As one educator has phrased it, "Pre-apprentice training prepares a student to find work and continue; junior-college training should prepare him to find work and go ahead."

The Orange Coast Plan

After consideration of all these factors, certain decisions were reached concerning the vocational program at Orange Coast College. (1) It was decided that training should be offered not for specific named occupations but rather for families of occupations. This approach, it was felt, not only affords the student a wider choice of occupations when he enters employment but also trains him to progress more rapidly on the job. (2) Evidence from the occupational survey showed that two-year programs were justified in twelve occupational fields: small business operation, bookkeeping and accounting, secretarial work, engine mechanics, commercial art, ceramics, building trades, metal crafts, homemaking, architectural drafting, petroleum

technology, and general vocational agriculture. (3) It was decided that approximately one-half of the student's time should be spent in general education and one-half in vocational training. (4) The most important decision was that vocational classes should be given large blocks of time and full responsibility for the manipulative, technical, and related training within their field.

Problems and Advantages

This last decision involves certain problems. We realized that it would be even more difficult to find instructors with sufficient breadth of experience to offer training, for example, in such courses as engine mechanics or metal trades and in the related technical fields than it is to find teachers competent in a single craft. The decision to include mathematical and scientific training within the vocational course means some duplication of laboratory and classroom equipment. It is felt, however, that this duplication is less serious than the waste of the student's time involved in the usual approach. A third problem has to do with the selection of students. Before allowing a student to invest fifteen hours a week for a period of two years in preparation for a job field, the college is obliged to assure itself and the student that he has the abilities and interest for success in the field. For this reason,

an extensive program of counseling, before and during college registration, is an essential concomitant of the comprehensive training plan. Administratively, it was realized that, in some industrial fields, broad courses of this nature are not eligible for Smith-Hughes and other federal-aid programs.

On the other hand, the plan of a vocational course to meet for three hours daily every day in the week has certain important advantages over the fragmentary approach to vocational training. The plan makes it possible for the instructor to organize a co-ordinated and comprehensive training, with assurance that the related instruction is of truly practical significance. Considerable economy of the student's time, together with freedom from schedule conflicts, results from restricting the related mathematics and scientific instruction to the field of major interest. The longer period of daily instruction affords opportunity for students to start and complete major projects, sometimes within the course of one day. This is especially advantageous in those fields where changing clothing and cleaning up after work requires a significant portion of the usual class hour. The longer daily period affords the vocational instructor much greater flexibility in planning the activities of his class. As an example, the longer period encourages the use of field trips

since it is rarely necessary for one instructor to encroach on the student's time in another class.

Examples of Vocational Courses

An example of the development of these programs is the course in petroleum technology. In the instructor's plan, three hours out of each week are devoted to review in mathematics and the principles of chemistry and physics necessary to an understanding of the petroleum industry. Another three hours are devoted to work in petroleum geology. Two daily sessions, or a total of six hours weekly, are planned for laboratory work, using such equipment as viscosimeters, distillation apparatus, flash-testers, and electrometric pH testers. The laboratory periods also are frequently used by the instructor for field trips to neighboring production fields and refineries. The final three hours of the weekly fifteen-hour total are devoted to the discussion of oil technology, including exploration, development, exploitation, refining, and marketing.

The course in building trades is similarly broad in its conception. The shop is completely equipped for mill and cabinet work. An area of about two acres immediately adjacent to the shop is available for building projects. The work of the course, as planned, includes instruction in the mathematics and science needed to understand the problems

of the building contractor. A separate course embodying six hours a week in architectural drafting is required of all building-trades students. During the course of the two-year program, the equivalent of a three-unit semester course is devoted to local, county, and state building codes. Contractors throughout Southern California have been most generous in welcoming the class to periodic visits to major building projects. In these visits students are allowed to study blueprints and to view the progress of construction at various stages from foundation to completion.

The actual practice within the building-trades course consists of an introduction to the use of hand and machine woodworking tools, followed by the planning and construction of small buildings. In this construction project the student must complete every step required in the construction of a complete dwelling, including foundation, rough plumbing, framing, wiring, roofing, sheathing, plastering, glazing, and painting. At the completion of the course he will have both the theory and the practical skills required for entrance into any of the building trades. The Central Labor Council has agreed to grant credit to these students, on the basis of examination, to shorten the apprenticeship period.

The terminal program in agri-

culture as set forth in the College catalogue gives an example of the total scope of a student's course:

| <i>First Year:</i> | <i>Units</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------|
| Agriculture 51A-51B | 7 7 |
| English 50A-50B | 3 3 |
| Psychology 21; Hygiene 1 | 3 2 |
| Electives* | 3 3 |
| Physical education | ½ ½ |
| Total | 16½ 15½ |

| <i>Second Year:</i> | <i>Units</i> |
|--|--------------|
| Agriculture 52A-52B | 7 7 |
| Psychology 24; Business Education 40 | 3 2 |
| History 5; Political Science 5 | 2 2 |
| Electives* | 3 4 |
| Physical education | ½ ½ |
| Total | 15½ 15½ |

* Electives in mathematics, shops, and commercial subjects are recommended.

The course in agriculture includes supervised projects on the 160-acre school farm, with the operation and maintenance of the required machinery, as well as the science and bookkeeping demanded of the practical farmer. The other courses comprise the general education required of all students: English 50A-50B, English for terminal students; Psychology 21, introductory psychology; Hygiene 1, health education; Psychology 24, marriage and family relations; Business Education 40, industrial organization; History 5, United States history; and Political Science 5, American political institutions. The provision for elective courses each semester enables the agriculture student to include any area of special interest in his program, whether it be vocational or avocational.

The programs in engine mechanics, metal trades and architectural drafting, commercial art and ceramics are developed in much the same way. While the programs in homemaking and in business education follow the usual pattern of junior-college courses in these fields, consideration is being given to the possibility of longer instructional periods in the accountancy and secretarial curriculums.

Preliminary Evaluation

In planning this program, the administrative staff had a misgiving that instructors might find themselves unable to make effective use of the longer periods of time. The reaction of the instructors has been most gratifying. Each of them feels that he is able to accomplish so much in the amount of time avail-

able to him that he would tend to increase rather than decrease the weekly training time. The advisory committees have been kept in constant touch with the progress of the classes. In each case they enthusiastically favor this approach to training within their fields. Student reaction, as yet measured only informally, is also favorable; perhaps the best measure is the enthusiasm with which the students participate in the work of their vocational courses.

The administration and faculty of Orange Coast College believe that this departure from traditional vocational planning shows great promise. It is hoped that further experience may provide an answer to the problem of meaningful semi-professional training at the junior-college level.

Integrating High School and College

ARCHIE M. TURRELL

Much is being said about the problem of bridging the gap between, or integrating the programs of, high school and college. Most of these approaches are of an organized guidance nature and fail to strike at the more fundamental approach, namely, eliminating the barrier which traditionally separates the twelfth and thirteenth year.

The four-year junior college, combining as it does Grades XI through XIV on the same campus, can eliminate this unnecessary division. The question is: Does it actually do so? It may be interesting for the reader to examine, for a particular four-year junior college, the extent to which lower-division students (those in Grades XI and XII) are enrolled in college-level courses and the extent to which upper-division students (those in Grades XIII and XIV) are enrolled in lower-division courses.

Table 1 gives the answer to this question for at least one four-year junior college for the fall semester of 1948. It will be observed that, of

all the students' class assignments to upper-division courses, 21.8 per cent are students who have not yet completed Grade XII. Further, 6.9 per cent of the class assignments to lower-division courses are students who have completed Grade XII.

Of course this analysis gives only the proportion of lower-division students of the total enrolled in college work. The reverse picture is also shown for the upper-division students, namely, the proportion that upper-division students are of the total enrolled in lower-division work.

The data become more revealing when we find the ratio between the lower-division students in college courses compared to the total lower-division students assigned to all classes. This gives an answer to the question: What proportion of the work of all lower-division students enrolled at John Muir College is of college level or college caliber? By combining the totals of eleventh- and twelfth-grade students shown by Table 1 to be enrolled in both lower-division and upper-division courses, we find that 37.2 per cent of the work carried by lower-division students is of college cali-

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ber. This proportion becomes even more significant when we consider that the eleventh-grade students' programs are almost entirely made up of eleventh-grade courses. Consequently most of this 37.2 per cent of upper-division work is carried by

through XIV was of college character, why not then grant the Bachelor of Arts degree at the end of the fourteenth year?

However, in the thinking of this writer, at least, the main point is not whether the school grants a

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT CLASS ASSIGNMENTS IN A FOUR-YEAR JUNIOR COLLEGE IN FALL SEMESTER OF 1948

| College Department | Lower-Division Courses | | | Upper-Division Courses | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--------|
| | Students in Grades XI-XII | Students in Grades XIII-XIV | Total | Students in Grades XI-XII | Students in Grades XIII-XIV | Total |
| Applied arts: | | | | | | |
| Number | 255 | 63 | 318 | 348 | 1,264 | 1,612 |
| Per cent | 80.2 | 19.8 | 100.0 | 21.6 | 78.4 | 100.0 |
| Fine arts: | | | | | | |
| Number | 21 | 22 | 43 | 419 | 639 | 1,058 |
| Per cent | 48.8 | 51.2 | 100.0 | 39.6 | 60.4 | 100.0 |
| Humanities: | | | | | | |
| Number | 2,012 | 32 | 2,044 | 385 | 2,817 | 3,202 |
| Per cent | 98.4 | 1.6 | 100.0 | 12.0 | 88.0 | 100.0 |
| Natural science: | | | | | | |
| Number | 1,465 | 161 | 1,626 | 1,070 | 3,254 | 4,324 |
| Per cent | 90.1 | 9.9 | 100.0 | 24.7 | 75.3 | 100.0 |
| All departments: | | | | | | |
| Number | 3,753 | 278 | 4,031 | 2,222 | 7,974 | 10,196 |
| Per cent | 93.1 | 6.9 | 100.0 | 21.8 | 78.2 | 100.0 |

twelfth-grade students. An analysis of the eleventh- and twelfth-grade enrolments separately shows that 6.8 per cent of the eleventh-grade student's program is of college caliber, while 67.4 per cent of the twelfth-grade student's program is college work. This actually means that, over a period of years in the four-year junior college, the division line has, to a considerable extent, been pushed down to the interval between the eleventh and the twelfth year. If the time arrived that the caliber of work carried by all students from Grades XI

Bachelor's degree at the end of the fourteenth year or even whether the student gets any degree credit for college work taken in Grades XI and XII. The main advantage is that the student takes work of a level or caliber commensurate with his ability. Stating it in the form of a question: If a student is capable of doing a level of work higher than his grade placement, why should he be held back? Also, if some students can take this advanced work *in addition to* twelfth-grade diploma requirements, should they not have such opportunities?

Where and How To Train Teachers for General Education

MALCOLM S. MACLEAN

IT IS a truism that any program of general education developed by the junior colleges will be as strong or as weak as its teachers. Therefore, the where and the how of their training is now and will become increasingly a problem of critical importance. This article attempts to block out some of the major aspects of the job and indicate some possible solutions. Before either the where or the how can be solved, however, it is clear that the junior colleges of California must make up their minds what sort of general education they want to give.

Granted that general education contrasts with, and is supplementary to, specialized academic and vocational training and assuming that it is an attempt at a synthesis of present knowledge, we still have spread before us in America a variety of experimental patterns of general education, from which choice

must be made or new combinations fashioned. Some of these are:

1. That demonstrated by the University of Wisconsin Experimental College of the 1920's in which Freshmen were trained to view the whole of Greek civilization in the Golden Age as a vast, unified, integrated background against which Sophomores were taught to lay comparatively the whole of the culture and growth of the United States.

2. That being promoted by St. John's College and Robert M. Hutchins and Mortimer Adler in the Great Books program. This presumes that the best general education is a continued soaking of students, up to their intellectual chins, in the fundamental thinking, ideas, and, perhaps, truths of the classics. Its proponents have the notion that any youth so trained can solve any problem of his own or of society's by reference to the concepts of the masters. Its opponents see in it a highly hazardous return to reaction, dogmatism, and authoritarianism, as well as a denial of the scientific method.

3. That represented by the University of Chicago Plan of general education, which attains its syntheses by sweeping up the shards, fragments, and straws of subject-matter specialties into four great piles labeled Physical Sciences, Biological Sciences, Social Sciences, and the Humanities and

MALCOLM S. MACLEAN, professor of education at the University of California at Los Angeles, gave this address before a meeting of the Southern California Junior College Association on October 16, 1948.

putting each of these under academic high pressures and temperatures in order to synthesize them and unify them.

4. That represented by such continually experimental colleges as Stephens and the General College of the University of Minnesota, which have for years been developing programs of general education focused on the identified, shared, and common needs of young people and the needs of democratic society for mature personalities, for healthy and happy families, for skilled and knowledgeable workers, and for informed and active citizens.

It seems clear to me that, only when the junior colleges of California have made up their minds which of these several patterns or combinations of patterns they will adopt and shape to their institutions, to their students, and to these times, can we really determine where and how general-education teachers can be recruited, trained, and placed.

Against this brief background we can talk about *where*. So far as I know, there is scarcely a higher institution in California that has taken seriously the problem of training teachers for general education. While three of the state colleges—San Francisco, Chico, and San Diego—are well on their way to developing strong programs of general education based on student and societal needs, their production of teachers so trained seems likely to flow into the secondary and the elementary schools of the state rather than into the junior colleges—un-

less the junior colleges soon plan to demand of the state colleges that they undertake to train teachers for general education for the junior colleges and work out co-operative efforts to that end. It appears to me quite possible that, with thoughtful team work, effective Master's degree programs in such fields of general education as personality development; marriage and home and family life; orientation to the work of the world and training in common daily economic competence; training for participation in the activities of citizenship; training in personal, family, and public health; training for recreation and leisure-time pursuits; and others, could be worked out with fair rapidity and satisfaction to both the state and the junior colleges.

The second place where teachers for general education might be trained to supply the junior colleges is the state and private universities and colleges. But, in general, it is evident that, if these institutions are to build programs for such training, the junior colleges must be very clear and specific in defining what kinds of teachers they want, in what fields of general education. They must, too, be insistent in their demands, must co-ordinate them, must apply pressures of considerable intensity on the colleges (office in charge of relations with schools, for example), on high administrative officers, and on college and department heads if these institutions

are to be brought to accept the responsibility and provide staff, funds, and space for this training. At present, so far as I know, there are in California only two professors of higher education directly concerned with this problem of teachers for the junior colleges—W. H. Cowley, of Stanford University, and myself, and both of us have been assigned a number of other interests and responsibilities as well.

The third source of teachers for general education is the experimental institutions outside the state. Inspection of the faculty lists of the three state colleges now developing programs of general education and of those junior colleges which are attempting them shows clearly that they have drawn many teachers from Minnesota, Chicago, Stephens, Colgate, Wisconsin, and others for the purpose. While this process brings excellent results, so far as I am able to judge, it is clear that the junior-college demand is likely to increase hugely, and the supply available from the midwestern and eastern institutions is strictly limited.

The fourth and final source of teachers for general education is to accept the specialized, subject-matter-trained product of our California higher institutions and try to recondition and reindoctrinate them by in-service training in the junior colleges. To a certain extent such in-service training is always

necessary to adapt the new teacher to the college, the community, the students. But to put the whole burden of making him over from a somewhat narrow analyst and researcher in a part of a portion of a piece of a broad field of knowledge into a master synthesizer and interpreter of interrelated fields in terms of what is often a wholly new orientation to student and societal needs is demanding too much of junior-college administrators absorbed in a hundred other important tasks.

If and when the junior colleges decide on their programs of general education, decide what types or blends the programs are to be, estimate the scope of the programs in terms of numbers of courses and co-curricular activities, project the curves of their probable student populations for some years to come, and decide from which of the four sources they will want to draw, it should not be too difficult to predict, with fair accuracy, the numbers and kinds of teachers in general education that you will need for a few years ahead. As this is done, we can approach the question of how they shall be trained.

When once the task is defined and assigned to the institutions of higher education in California in co-operation with the junior colleges, and you have persuaded them and their administrators of the importance of the task, I am confident it will be attacked with zest. It is

even conceivable that one or more of the universities might follow the new plan at Harvard, where, I understand, the Graduate School of Education will offer a doctorate in general education. The California institutions might reach the conclusion of the dean of Columbia College, who recently said that the only way he saw to solve the problem was for the universities to develop graduate schools of general education for this purpose just as they have bred schools of chemistry, of social work, of journalism, and the like. The dean sees this as the only way in which the graduate schools as at present constituted could be persuaded to veer from their heavy concentration on specialization and the minutiae of research, which obviously is wholly inadequate preparation for teaching in general education.

Whether this is done or not, our graduate schools of education are perhaps more ready to try to undertake the task than you may realize. We see clearly the need for extensive study of the late adolescent and early adult who makes up the student body of the junior colleges, of the patterns of his ambitions and his needs, his vocational aptitudes, his interests in home and family and in training himself to make a growing contribution to his community. We see a matching comprehensive study of community needs for the graduates of the jun-

ior colleges, as men and women, as workers, as citizens. We see how essential it is that we refuse to blunder along blindly when there are already available, in the literature and experiences of our own and midwestern and eastern experimental colleges, great wealths of information if we will but gather, organize, and analyze them for materials with which to instruct our future junior-college teachers in the principles and methods of building courses and curriculums in general education for junior-college students. At the University of California at Los Angeles we have made, in our curriculum laboratory, the beginning of what we hope will be a master collection of such materials for the use of students, as well as your use and that of your staffs.

I can see no reason why the universities and the junior colleges should not arrange, as one or two of the colleges have already done, a wide-scale, satisfactory scheme of internships in teaching in general education. Then, as our graduate students press on in their studies of general education, they may do practice teaching with you. This should be done under joint supervision of one of your administrative staff and one of our teachers in order that both institutions and students may learn rapidly, correct errors, and make improvements while the errors are hot and alive.

Financing the Private Junior College

COLONEL B. B. ABRAMS

IN EDUCATION, as in every field, a great heritage and noble record do not alone guarantee a great future. Leadership depends on more than spiritual endowment. It calls for financial security.

The private junior colleges inevitably are competing with other fine educational institutions which are publicly supported. The tax-supported colleges and junior colleges are constantly enriching the teaching program, building up the library, improving scientific equipment, and strengthening the faculty in order to provide the best education for their students. To keep pace with them, the private schools must at least keep abreast—and indeed should do more.

Unless the private—or should we say, “independent”?—colleges keep step with the progress of educational institutions around them, young instructors of brilliance and unusual ability will be attracted elsewhere, and there will be a general exodus of students who will seek enrolment at tax-supported

schools. Without these instructors and students, the glory of an institution will be in the past, and, before many years have elapsed, its doors will be closed forever. Such a situation is unthinkable, but it may come about.

The answer to this problem is the procurement of additional funds to supplement the annual income derived from tuition. In the days before World War II, it was commonplace for private junior colleges to pay their way, year by year, through income from tuition alone. Today such a practice is most difficult. Since 1941, faculty and staff salaries have increased by two-thirds or more.¹ Many operating expenses have gone up more than 100 per cent. All commodities are tremendously expensive and give promise of staying at a high level for some time to come.

Raising the tuition to meet the increased operating expenses and to provide for a program of expansion and improvement, as well, would be an impractical solution. To do so

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¹ Sebastian V. Martorana and Leonard V. Koos, “Junior-College Teacher Salaries in 1947-48,” *Junior College Journal*, XIX (December, 1948), 192.

would make the cost of attending school so prohibitive that few students could afford to enrol. By this time, most of us have probably discovered that expansion of the student body does not necessarily guarantee increased income. Any substantial increase of the student body calls for more instructors, extra facilities, and greater operating expenditures. Most of the private junior colleges are comparatively small and are not planning to become large institutions.

At my college, we were able to make the 1947-48 session pay for itself. This appears, particularly to a board of trustees, to be a creditable accomplishment. Actually, just making ends meet is not enough. To operate from year to year on such a basis would result in a worn-out plant, outmoded equipment, and a disgruntled faculty. Instead of progressing, a school would rapidly deteriorate.

Extra funds, above the cost of operating, are needed annually for increased faculty salaries, new construction, remodeling, new equipment, library books, visual aids, and so on and on. Certainly, I cannot visualize the administrative head of a college saying that the institution's facilities are ever complete and that nothing more need be done to increase the educational efficiency.

It is clear to me that these additional finances must come from

some outside source, unless a school is blessed with a large enough endowment to provide sufficient capital. To this end, Texas Military College has undertaken a \$250,000 fund-raising campaign to be completed in five years. The campaign is in the hands of committee members who have volunteered for the work and who are not officially connected with the college itself. We feel that our home town should lead the way in the matter of contributions, followed by the alumni groups. If these two sources respond, we shall feel justified in "passing the hat" in other localities. The results thus far have been satisfactory.

A survey recently made of 25 private schools in the East and the Middle West showed that 15 schools derive more than 90 per cent of their total income from tuition fees. In two schools, 40 per cent of the income is obtained from endowment, and in the other 23, less than 3 per cent comes from endowment. The survey disclosed that many schools are now evolving programs of soliciting annual and special gifts, looking to these means more than to endowments and increased tuition charges for raising additional funds.

In the past many students enrolled in private colleges because it was the custom in their family to do so, because the church they attended operated a college, or merely

to "keep up with the Joneses." Today, a student pays his tuition to an independent institution because he feels that he can obtain a better education at such a place than he could at a public junior college.

Ten years ago many young men and women had to leave home in order to attend college and were, therefore, attracted to the small, private junior colleges. Since that time, excellent community junior colleges have been established in numerous towns, and it is no longer necessary to seek a school elsewhere.

My considered opinion is that, in order to compete in the future with the location, the lower tuition rates, and, in many instances, the excellent equipment of tax-supported colleges, the private school must possess the most modern equipment and a superior faculty. It should be in a position to give its students better supervision and a better edu-

cation than can be obtained elsewhere. It must maintain a reputation for graduating people who achieve success because of their superior educational advantages. To do so will take money. The measure of an educational institution is its product—the graduate—and not how cheaply the school has been run.

If these remarks concerning the future of the independent junior college impress you as being pessimistic, such was not my intention. In my opinion, there are few tax-supported schools that can approach the efficiency of a good private institution. I am convinced that the private colleges can go out and raise the necessary funds to insure a bright future for themselves. Only those schools which are satisfied with just "getting by" must face the prospect of yielding the reins of education to the public colleges in their areas.

Art History in the Junior-College Curriculum

EVA MARIA NEUMEYER

THE teaching of art history in junior colleges is not destined to prepare young people for professional careers in the historical study of the arts but rather to widen and deepen the cultural horizons of boys and girls who are usually engaged in specialized training designed for future professional occupations. Such a course has a two-fold character: it exposes the students to various aspects of the arts, and it presents these arts from the point of view of historical evolution. This exposure to aesthetic experience is not a luxury.

Advantages of Historical Approach

It is meant to arouse awareness of the realm of beauty and to enrich an existence which otherwise is filled with the practical necessities of making a living. There is no reason why the interest in physical activities aroused through sports in school should not find a parallel in the realm of

cultural experience. Habits can be developed at an age when the mind is impressionable.

Here the historical method is suggested for the exposure to aesthetic experience. It has several advantages over the so-called "art-appreciation" courses. First, and most important, the presentation of an art object in its historical perspective helps to develop a sense of perspective in general. This presentation teaches the student that he cannot understand the world, neither man nor man-made objects, if he approaches it from the point of view of his own merely instinctive likes and dislikes. He will learn to see that, just as each flower is a product of its own natural setting, of a special climate, of rain or sunshine, of rock or sand, so the work of art is a product of a specific time and a specific place.

Insight into the fact that a work of art is planned, does not happen accidentally, will develop an understanding attitude in a young person, which may well be reflected in a greater capacity for accepting another human being on the basis of the rights of his own existence.

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The historical approach will organize the material in a natural way and, if properly taught, will point to parallels in other fields of instruction. A student who has been told that the pictures of the French painter David parallel, in time, the first symphonies of Beethoven and the French Revolution will be stimulated to look for possible interrelations and to see formerly isolated facts in a wider context. In short, history as well as art begins to have meaning.

Finally, the historical approach prevents inconsequential and unsubstantial talk about art, replacing it by an analysis which presents facts while it stirs the imagination. The teacher of art history *should* speak about beauty, but he will do so in describing those factors which brought about the peculiar beauty of a Greek sculpture or of a contemporary American painting.

Since the history of art deals with the visual arts, it will also help to educate the eye of the student. It is a mistake to believe that everybody is using his eyes to his fullest potentialities. The hunter sees more in the woods than the average city dweller does, because he knows what to look for. If we know what to look for, we look for the right things. A student who has been given a course in art history which includes architecture will walk through the streets of his own town with a sharpened under-

standing and an increased pleasure in his surroundings.

Methods of Teaching

This brings us to the point at which we can discuss how to teach such a course. One of the fallacies of many such courses has been that they were not related to the everyday experiences of the student. It is not necessary to begin every field of learning with the environmental experiences. There must also be surprises, unknown areas, explorations, and adventures of the mind. But it is possible, even necessary, to relate unknown factors to known ones. Let us take several examples from a general-survey course. When speaking about Greek temples, one can point out the state capitol or the First National Bank or any building in one's own vicinity that has paid its reverent tribute to classical tradition. Comparison of the ancient temples and the later building will offer opportunity for discussing why America should have had such an interest in classical art. It will enable the students to see the relationship between the political concepts of democracy and the worship of antiquity; it will introduce Thomas Jefferson as the builder of a whole university campus in the classical manner; it will permit a critical comparison of the genuine product and the derivative. When speaking about the medieval period, one surely will be

able to point out a post office, a brewery, or a library in the style of a Rhenish castle or a Cambridge refectory. The liturgy of the Catholic service abounds in medieval forms. Wherever we look, in fact, we can become aware that the past is contained in the present. In that manner the present itself takes on a time dimension, a third dimension, while the past is no longer a dead past but a living one.

A course in art history teaches, besides the historical facts and their cultural and aesthetic meaning, the history and the application of techniques and materials. Thus the future fashion designer, the printer, the builder, the craftsman will be prepared for his profession by a knowledge of the history of the technical aspects of those tools and materials with which and by which he will have to work. The other day the principal of a school explained to me that her students in the fashion department had to be made aware of the latest trends in materials and designs in order to be up to date when they were leaving school and entering their professions. Yet what is the "latest trend" in fashion? More than half of it is a revival of fashions of the past, recomposed in a manner to make them look modern. A student who is capable of seeing in a modern design from *Vogue* ideas drawn from Flemish tapestries or Victorian lithographs will be a much

more capable designer herself because she will know where to look and what to look for.

A course which deals with visual material cannot be taught without slides. If one uses 10-20 slides per lecture at 35 meetings per semester, 350-700 slides will be required for a three-unit course. The small 2 by 2 slides, which are rightly the favorite of modern schools, at the present cost about 50 cents apiece in black and white, approximately \$1.00 in color. For an average of 500 slides for one course, the cost will range between \$250 and \$500, depending on how many color slides are chosen. Of course, such an investment is by no means limited to one course because the material can be used in countless variations and for the most diversified purposes.

There are in the country a dozen companies which send out lists of their slides. Lists also can be obtained or produced by the institute of art history of a near-by university. Besides the use of slides, reproductions in books can be projected in a lantern machine equipped with double projection, but the handling is much clumsier and the image usually is not so clear as that of the slides. For the same reason, slides should be produced wherever possible from glossy photographs and not from reproductions. In addition to a "slide library," it is desirable to obtain gradually a stock of large framed

color reproductions which not only serve for class demonstration but also can be used for decorating the school.

The student can get along with one textbook or without any textbook, but several of great merit are available. Most desirable for the student is the possession of a set of prints to be pasted into the notebook. It is the task of the teacher to select a group which parallels his lecture course. From one to two hundred of these prints represents for the student an investment of two to four dollars. Their psychological effect is considerable. Not only do they support the memory, but they make the notebook attractive to its owner so that he often shows it to other students or browses through it beyond the required study.

An additional support is given today to the teacher by such magazines as *Life*, which regularly publishes intelligent articles on art and archeology to be used for classroom discussion and classroom material. Finally, visits to museums and exhibits enliven classroom instruction and familiarize the student with the three-dimensional reality of a work of art which previously he might have known only through reproductions. There are, in short, many approaches, and a combination of them will make for interesting teaching and responsive stu-

dents. Financial investments are necessary only in the beginning, and they decrease after the initial expenditures.

A Course in Action

Such a course as that described is taught at Lux College by the writer of this article. At present it is a required subject for all students majoring in interior decoration, and it is attended by 10 per cent of the total enrolment. The intention is, however, to make the course also a requirement for students majoring in apparel (clothing), one of the most important fields taught at our college, which specializes in semiprofessional curriculums.

Participation of the students is stimulated by written analysis of paintings, by discussion of articles appearing in the *Magazine of Art*, the *Art News*, *Life*, and other periodicals, and by regular visits to exhibitions in the three museums of San Francisco. As an additional feature, Lux College has made an arrangement with the San Francisco Museum of Art to have some of the students accepted as volunteer helpers in the museum. In this way, students are drawn closer into the atmosphere of artistic culture and, by actual experience, gain in lively interest.

It may be mentioned that a parallel offering, a course in the history

of literature, is attended by many of the students who are studying, or have studied, the history of art.

Students have stated that the course in the history of art has helped them to understand many features of contemporary art and life much better and that they have gained a deeper insight into what they are doing in the practical application of design and color. Narrow-minded rejection of contemporary art is gradually yielding to a serious effort to understand, and finally to finding pleasure in, previously inaccessible artistic expressions. This course is described in the College catalogue as follows:

The course "Modern Art from the French Revolution to the Present Day" is designed for students who in their profession will require some knowledge of the history of art such as will be expected from interior decorators, fashion designers, or commercial artists. The course wishes also to serve as an orientation in the complex aspects of present-day civilization which confront young people. In explaining the gradual making of modern art and in relating it to social, economic, and literary facts of the

times, a better understanding and a livelier participation in the cultural activities is sought. The lectures are illustrated by slides and the study periods provided with photographic material and large-size color reproductions. Regular tours to current exhibitions in the Bay Area will acquaint the student with the various facilities in the cultural field.

The course aims, besides its historical content, to arouse in the student the wish to make her life richer and more meaningful by a lasting contact with the arts.

It would be wrong to see the only purpose of such a course in its professional implications, since only a small percentage of students are entering fields related to the arts. The aspects of the course which transcend the professional are those which make it important for the student. The saturation with cultural factors, casting light on every aspect of civilization, is what makes a work of art significant. By its direct appeal to the human senses it impresses itself deeply on the mind of the student. Exposure to the beautiful is one of the noblest tasks of education.

Organization for Guidance

A. B. MARTIN

No one plan of guidance and counseling will be suitable for all junior colleges. Each college will have to adapt its plan of organization to fit its own student body. The enrolment of the college and the course offerings will have much to do with the type of plan used. The larger the college, the more complex the organization must be. In the small college there is more contact with the individual student and, hence, less need for a highly centralized form of organization.

Certain phases of organization, however, should always be present. These phases, ideas, or practices are presented here in brief form after a thorough investigation of current organization plans in public junior colleges of the United States.

Administrative Organization

The guidance and personnel program should be organized under the direction of a professionally trained director of guidance and

personnel service. The director should devote his full time to the work. He should be responsible to the dean and president of the college for carrying out institutional policy and administrative directives. However, he should be free, in handling his duties, to exercise his trained judgment.

The director should be well qualified as to personal characteristics, training, and experience. He must possess executive ability and be able to co-ordinate and direct the guidance and personnel service in the whole college. All members of the guidance and personnel staff should be directly responsible to him. All members of the faculty who are not assigned to his staff but are involved, through classroom instruction or otherwise, in guidance work should be responsible to him in matters of counseling and guidance.

In small junior colleges it may be necessary to combine the office of director of guidance and personnel service with some other administrative office. In this case, care must be exercised to see that the guidance office is not combined with the office which is responsible for student discipline.

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To help the director of guidance and personnel service to perform the duties of his office more efficiently, there should be organized a personnel council composed of representatives from the faculty and the administrative branch of the college and, if possible, a representative of the college board of trustees. This personnel council should function as a policy-making and advisory board under the general administration of the college.

The size of the college will determine the need of assistants to the director. In the large colleges there should be a qualified assistant director for each division of counseling and guidance. In the smaller colleges these duties can be performed by the counselors.

Serving under the director of guidance and personnel service should be an adequate staff of counselors. The proportion of counselors to students should not exceed a ratio of one hundred students to a counselor. These counselors may or may not be required to do work in addition to their counseling duties. In any case, additional work should be of such a nature and time requirement that it will not interfere with the duties of counseling. The counselors must be trained in the field of guidance and counseling.

The program should provide for the use of specialists in particular cases. It is suggested that arrangements be made to employ psychia-

trists or physicians on a fee or part-time basis when they are needed.

Instructors, deans, and other members of the college faculty should all function as part of the guidance program, and all should be taught the student personnel point of view. The opportunity offered to each teacher and administrator in the area of guidance is unlimited provided the faculty understands the guidance point of view. It is the duty of the director of guidance, through in-service training or any other suitable means, to inculcate the guidance point of view among the members of the college faculty. Definite provision for in-service training in guidance for all the faculty should be a part of the college organizational program.

Tests and Measurements

In each college there should be a testing bureau, which is operated under the direction of the director of guidance. This bureau should be equipped with the latest and best testing materials. The bureau should be staffed by the counselors and be available to any person who desires its services. The guidance testing program of the college should be operated through the bureau.

Keeping Records

Certain basic facts and information about the students must be available if an effective guidance

program is to be put into operation. These include data about the student's home and family background, physical and mental status, personal and social development, scholastic progress, and information from tests. The cumulative record should contain the required information in a concise and easily understood form, but it should not sacrifice thoroughness for the sake of brevity. The more information which is recorded, the better the guidance that can be effected.

Adequate space and a good filing system should be provided for keeping the records. An attitude conducive to the use of the recorded information should be developed among the guidance personnel.

Sufficient clerical help should be employed to perform the routine work in the offices of the director of guidance and the counselors.

Responsibility for Counseling

All counseling except educational counseling should be in the

hands of the director of guidance and the counselors. Educational counseling can be performed by the heads of the respective departments, deans of the college, or other designated and qualified faculty members. The final results of this educational counseling should be reviewed by the guidance staff and be subject to their recommendations. If possible, the program of each student should be passed on by the guidance staff before the student is allowed to pursue the program of studies recommended by non-guidance staff counselors.

Special or personal counseling should be a duty of each counselor. However, the plan of organization should include a placement and follow-up service. This division should be maintained in a separate office but should have ready access to the guidance records. This office can be staffed by student personnel, but the supervision and actual counseling must be done by the directors of guidance and the counselors.

Salaries and Schedules: An Exploratory Inquiry

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

AND

LEONARD V. KOOS

POLICIES and practices in determining salaries and the salaries actually being paid junior-college teachers were the chief purposes of inquiry in a study completed last year under the auspices of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Results of the policies-and-practices phase were published in the November *Junior College Journal* and data on the salaries themselves in the December issue. Still another phase of the study, however, should be reported, not only for such information as it supplies, but also because it is an initial attempt to test a hypothesis

which should be more exhaustively examined.

The point at issue concerns the extent of relationship, if any, between the quality of formally constructed salary schedules used to determine salaries and the salaries paid to full-time teachers in local and district public junior colleges. Many persons would contend that the quality of schedules should bear a positive relationship to salaries paid. Investigation of this relationship was not a main purpose of the whole salary study, and it is admitted at the outset that the data used are insufficient to justify the drawing of conclusive generalizations. Enough relationship was found, however, to arouse curiosity and to suggest the desirability of comprehensive and definitive investigation of the question.

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Included on the form used to gather facts concerning junior-college teacher salaries was the request that, if an officially formulated salary schedule was being used, a copy of the schedule be sent

to the Research Office of the Association at the University of Chicago along with the completed questionnaire. A total of eighty-seven such documents was received: sixty-two from local and district junior colleges, twenty-one from private institutions, and four from state junior colleges. Because too few schedules were submitted from privately controlled and state colleges to be useful when further subclassification of institutions by size of enrolment was made, this article deals only with the salary schedules received from local and district junior colleges.

Procedure in Comparison

An investigation looking into the relationship between the quality of salary schedules and the amounts paid to teachers included under the schedules involves two steps. There must first be established a means of determining relative excellence of the individual schedules under examination, and the salaries of teachers working in the institutions represented by schedules of varying quality must be compared. In this analysis the first step was achieved through compilation of a set of criteria, or standards, by which official salary schedules could be differentiated and grouped on a qualitative basis. The second step was the comparison of measures of central tendency in salaries for the different groups.

Compilation of a list of evaluative standards to be applied to formal salary schedules was the more uncertain and difficult task. The procedure followed was that of finding, in the writings of specialists in educational administration and reports of research studies into the nature of salary schedules, points of agreement concerning principles which should be observed in these documents. Following is the set of thirteen standards that were finally determined on the basis of their frequency of recurrence in the literature and were used in this study.

1. The schedule was constructed by joint effort of classroom teachers, administrators, board members, and interested laymen.
2. It specifically describes salary classifications and the qualifications basic to appointment in each classification.
3. It contains a concise statement of regulations governing the application of the salary schedule, that is, the point of view of the board of education toward the purpose, use, and exceptions to the administration of the schedule.
4. It provides for definitely announced salary increases and specific regularly fixed intervals of time for granting increases.
5. It states clearly the relationship of professional qualifications (degrees and credentials held) to the location of teachers on the salary scale. (This standard does not in all cases overlap with Standard 2 because the qualifications basic to

appointment in a salary classification in Standard 2 need not be professional qualifications. The qualifications may be requirements as to level taught, subject matter taught, etc.)

6. It states clearly the relationship of experience to the location of teachers on the salary scale.
7. It states clearly the relationship of professional contributions (research and writings) to the location of the teacher on the salary scale.
8. It states clearly the relation of travel experience to the location of teachers on the salary scale.
9. It provides in each classification for a maximum salary at least twice the minimum salary.
10. It provides for salary increments continued over at least twelve years.
11. It provides for extra pay for extra work beyond that provided for in the schedule classification.
12. It provides for a dependency allowance (regardless of sex of the teacher).
13. It includes provision for a cost-of-living adjustment.

Persons versed in the literature of educational administration will recognize, in the foregoing standards, statements on which there is considerable agreement. Inspection of the statements and some thought on their potential use will suggest that they can be useful for qualitative differentiation of salary schedules. It may be argued that the several standards are not comparable or of equal worth as evaluative measures. This is a rec-

ognized weakness of the present inquiry.

The twelve-year period of continuation of salary increments stated in Standard 10 was derived from data reported in the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *Analysis of Single Salary Schedules*, which reports that official salary schedules are in use in approximately 88 per cent of the cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 persons and that the median number of increments provided for in the schedules used is 13; approximately 87 per cent of the cities of from 30,000 to 100,000 persons use official salary schedules and the median number of increments provided for is 11.¹ Because most cities in which junior colleges are located range from 10,000 to 100,000 in population, twelve years was chosen as the criterion for the period over which salary increments should continue.

By examining the official salary schedules against the standards established, it was possible to classify the schedules into four groups: Group I, those meeting from one to four standards; Group II, those meeting from five to seven standards; Group III, those meeting from eight to ten standards; and

¹ *Analysis of Single Salary Schedules*, p. 89. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXV, No. 3. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1947.

Group IV, those meeting from eleven to thirteen standards. The second step in the study procedure, namely, comparing measures of central tendency in salaries paid in institutions represented in each group of salary schedules, was next completed. This comparison is made in Table 1.

Among junior colleges of fewer than 300 students, a difference of \$550 is found between the median salary in Group I and Group II, and the difference between Group II and Group III is \$900. In the next size classification, 300-599 students, the median salary for Group II exceeds that for Group

TABLE 1.—RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF SALARY SCHEDULES AND MEDIAN TEACHER SALARIES IN 62 LOCAL AND DISTRICT PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES GROUPED BY SIZE OF ENROLMENT

| Quality of Schedule | Colleges Enrolling | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------|------------------------------|---------------|
| | Fewer than 300 Students (23)* | | 300-599 Students (14) | | 600-999 Students (12) | | 1,000 Students and Over (13) | |
| | Number | Median Salary | Number | Median Salary | Number | Median Salary | Number | Median Salary |
| Group I (1 to 4 criteria) . | 12 | \$2,900 | 6 | \$3,500 | 5 | \$3,150 | 2 | \$4,325 |
| Group II (5 to 7 criteria) . | 9 | \$3,450 | 8 | \$3,550 | 7 | \$3,550 | 8 | \$3,950 |
| Group III (8 to 10 criteria) | 2 | \$4,350 | | | | | 3 | \$4,050 |
| Group IV (11 to 13 criteria) | | | | | | | | |

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of junior colleges submitting salary schedules.

Interpreting the Results

According to the hypothesis, a positive relationship between quality of official salary schedules and the amount of salary paid should be disclosed in Table 1 by increases in the median salaries shown in each column of the table as progression is made from the top to the bottom of the column. With the exception of the last column in the table, increases are revealed in median salaries with increases in quality of official schedules.

I, but the difference is only \$50 and is hardly significant. For institutions with 600-999 students, however, a difference of \$400 is found in favor of Group II as compared with Group I. The pattern of increase of salary with quality of schedules does not continue into institutions with a thousand or more students, but it may be noted that the numbers of institutions in Groups I and III are so small as to indicate unreliability of the measures of central tendency for

them. Factors that might interfere with the influence of quality of schedules on salaries in the larger institutions, even if the medians were reliable, would be the prestige of teaching in such units and the proximity of teacher-training institutions. In so far as the positive relationship may be assumed for the smaller institutions, it should afford assurance to administrators of smaller institutions with schedules meeting more of the criteria that they are in a better position to compete with others in recruiting and retaining teachers.

The reader has doubtless noted that no institution in the total of 62 represented was operating a schedule that would classify under Group IV, that is, meeting 11 or more criteria.

Toward Further Inquiry

This pilot study creates the strong presumption that salaries of teachers and quality of salary schedules in junior colleges are

positively related to each other. At the same time, the evidence on the relationship, while encouraging, is not conclusive. The need of a much larger investigation to establish or disestablish the relationship is indicated. Because of the relatively small total number of junior colleges in the country which use schedules to determine salaries of teachers, it is doubtful that reliable conclusions could be obtained by resort to junior-college salary schedules only, although an investigation endeavoring to obtain schedules from a larger number might be worth making. Greater assurance of significant light on the issue is afforded by an analogous investigation that would include large numbers of school systems at elementary- and high-school levels. There is little reason to believe that conclusions drawn from an inquiry involving lower school levels would be less applicable to junior colleges than to those schools.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

FROM the vantage point of the Executive Secretary's Desk, it appears that the junior-college movement is entering further definite phases of encouraging development. It is not claimed that all these phases are new. They have their roots in the past. Many leaders in this field of education, past and present, have advocated what is taking place. The grain of corn is coming forth in the blade and perhaps the ear, but it cannot be claimed that the full corn in the ear has appeared. This is still in the realm of hope—of expectation.

What are some of the encouraging signs? First of all, we observe greater maturity by junior-college personnel in group thinking and action. The collective execution of a plan now under way in New England is typical of similar developments in several sections of the country. The twenty-three institutions in the New England Junior College Council have, in a large measure, set aside all previous criteria for evaluating their programs. They are going back to bedrock in a consideration of what constitutes a good junior college. They have, for the time being, practically ig-

nored membership and recognition of all institutions, both in the Council and in the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Accreditation* has been a strong word in New England largely because New Englanders are an independent people with the traditions of the town meeting behind them. Each man's voice may be heard. He tends to resent any encroachment on his independence of thought or action. The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has never adopted a plan for *accreditation*, but of membership only. This position has been taken because institutions insist on freedom for their development in keeping with their own objectives. This section of the country is still the location of strong independent schools and colleges. They insist on the right of independence in name and in fact.

In view of the New England background and tradition, therefore, the present program of the junior colleges has rather unusual significance. The Council has, from time to time during the past few years, played around with the idea of setting up accreditation stand-

ards and practices. If this should be done, it would carry the junior colleges beyond any previous step taken by any educational association in that region. In essence, the junior colleges are going to try to lift themselves by their own collective bootstraps. They are setting up their own standards. This is in contrast to an acceptance of standards set up for them by senior institutions or by any other outside body or organization. A few years ago, when widespread dissatisfaction was openly and loudly expressed against the artificial, quantitative criteria written by senior institutions for junior colleges, Dr. Milton Proctor, of Westbrook Junior College, Portland, Maine, was invited to try his hand at doing a better job. He did it. In fact, it was done so well that he received an invitation to assist with standards for all colleges.

Today, however, Proctor and the Council are not satisfied with what has been done. They want a new deal. The cards have been reshuffled, including the high cards for eleven institutions now members of the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The new game will start with these eleven institutions, just as though they had never scored a point. Thorough surveys will be made of each college on a seven-point program of inquiry. Each college will pay for the survey, and

the work will be done largely by the junior colleges themselves.

The objective is that the standards of membership in the Council shall be the highest on a functional basis of any association in the country. The base line on which the investigations will start is the pronounced philosophy and objectives of each junior college. In this respect there appears to be no disposition to drive all institutions into any single pattern. From the starting-line of the publicized aims, each college will be measured by the facilities, equipment, personnel for administration and teaching, and the ethical principles on which students are recruited, counseled, taught, placed, and followed up.

We have observed something of the same general movement in the present re-examination of standards in the North Central Association; in studies now under way by a special committee in the Southern States; in California's special committee for junior-college standards; and even in the Northwest Association, where in 1945 standards were completely rewritten by a special commission. Apparently, junior colleges are coming of age and are more determined than ever to cast off the swaddling clothes, not to mention the grave clothes, in which they have been bound. They are tired of being looked upon as the mere *extension* of something else: upward extension of the high

school, downward extension of the liberal arts college, lateral extension of the lower division of the university! They are going to be institutions of learning in their own right, with the same reason for independence of development accorded to other fields of education. They will co-operate fully and do all that is possible to integrate their programs with what has gone before and with what will follow. They are not going to be appendages nor tangents. They will deal with other organized groups in education as equals. They are not going to be "junior" to anything nor to anybody. They are writing their own declaration of independence, constitution, and bill of rights. The fact that, during the past year or two, about twenty institutions have dropped the word "junior" from their names in preference to plain "college," or "city" or "community," and that a number of others are considering the same action indicates this new sense of independence. It further shows that the functions of these institutions constitute a phase of educational development, fully justified in itself as a well-rounded and "complete," not "terminal," unit of instruction in precisely the same manner and for the same reasons that four years of liberal arts instruction are regarded as a "complete" unit.

And what else is happening? The haphazard, hit-or-miss collections of junior colleges are gradually

giving way to honestly planned systems. New York and Florida are excellent examples, and it is hoped that, as a result of the most recent survey, a state-wide planned system may become a reality in California. This writer had the pleasure of sitting in council in Florida during the month of January with the new superintendent of public instruction, Dr. Thomas Bailey, and a group of persons representative of all phases of interest in the new program for education in the thirteenth and fourteenth years. One definite conclusion was reached for immediate action. If the program is to have an orderly development in the best interests of this great state, a survey must be made at once to determine, as far as possible, how many institutions will be needed and approximately where they should be located on a functional basis. Supervision will be required by persons in the State Department of Education to assist junior colleges with surveys in local communities and to build programs that will meet needs discovered by these surveys. This plan appears to be so logical, equitable, and fair to *all* citizens of the state that it resolves itself into plain common sense. Yet, in state after state, it has been neglected or even ignored.

We have reached something like a plateau in the organization of new junior colleges. It is good. It is no credit to the movement that new institutions should spring up

quickly, only to wither before the first blasts or adverse winds of fortune. A few years will be required to set into high gear recommendations of state planning commissions. The final results will be, so we confidently believe, a faster and a far more stable development than has been experienced in the past.

We observe, moreover, closer working co-operation between junior and senior institutions and state departments of education. We saw it in December, 1948, at Boston, Massachusetts, at a round-table meeting between some of these groups. We saw it again in the same month at Spokane, Washington. It is easy to see it in about twenty-five universities now awakening to a greater realization of their professional responsibilities to provide educational programs for junior-college personnel and concerted research into some of their critical problems. Unfortunately a few universities appear to be unaware of these greater opportunities and the unique functions which they have been commissioned to perform. These institutions are attempting to spread themselves to all corners of their respective states actually to do the work of community colleges. They seem to mistrust the wisdom and competence of community colleges to work effectively unless supervised closely by the university.

One of the best reports of co-operation that has come to the Desk is under way in California.

Junior colleges in that state requested assistance in the development of technical education for semiprofessional occupations. The results are described in the January, 1949, issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education* by Harold P. Rodes, assistant director of relations with schools, University of California at Los Angeles.

A further instance of co-operative work was witnessed at the University of Michigan on February 7 and 8, 1949. Junior and senior colleges, under the sponsorship of the College Entrance Examination Board, and with further co-operation from the United States Office of Education and the American Council on Education, met for a two-day planning conference. The purpose was to explore the need and methods for devising and administering screening tests for junior-college graduates seeking admission to upper-division university instruction. The group made an attack on the knotty problem of greater fluidity for transfer of students, emphasized in the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education.

From our Desk, it appears that effective statesmanship is on its way in junior-college education. The above stated examples are only a few among many that indicate this trend. The adoption of basic understandings and co-operative principles on a broad scale characterize much present planning.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

B. LAMAR JOHNSON, ELOISE LINDSTROM (editors), and OTHERS, *The Librarian and the Teacher in General Education: A Report of Library-Instructional Activities at Stephens College*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1948. Pp. xii + 70. \$2.00.

This book is a small volume—much too small—which describes experimental activities and practices in one educational institution, a junior college. These activities and practices are directed toward more effective utilization of library or instructional materials by the students and the faculty in their pursuit of common goals. It is an interesting and provocative addition to the literature in the college-library area as well as to that in the general area of higher education.

With the optimum use of materials by the students as the primary objective, the discussions center in the means by which the objective has been approached at Stephens College. Implications for similar institutions are recognized although practical considerations in individual situations may form a temporary barrier to comparable achievement.

The text of the volume is presented in five divisions or chapters. The first chapter describes briefly Stephens College, its philosophy, and its library organization. Stress is laid on the functional nature of the college program in its effort to meet the needs of the students as individuals. This objective is reflected in the library organization, which embraces practices not commonly found in the programs of institutions at the college level. Examples of these departures are described by the authors as follows:

Starting without preconceived mind sets and convictions, the College has developed a plan of library organization adapted to the requirements of its program. Hence librarians are not a separate group but are working members of the instructional staff. . . . Not only the librarian but all members of the professional library staff are members of the instructional staff. . . . Recognition of librarians as members of the instructional staff is proving functionally sound.

A second development of the College libraries has been the expansion of library materials. As the staff worked on improving their service to teaching, it soon became clear that the library could make a contribution through such varied audio-visual materials as slides, pictures, records, and

motion pictures. Accordingly, during the past several years the College libraries have expanded to include many varieties of audio-visual materials [pp. 4-5].

A third departure from practice usually employed in the small college is that of decentralization of the library materials. Plans have been developed to enable teachers and students to work together with appropriate books immediately at hand. Division libraries are adjacent to the offices and classrooms of teachers, smaller classroom libraries have been introduced and conference rooms are built in libraries so that teachers can have immediately at hand the books needed by them and their students.

Since the staff aims to locate books and other library materials where they can be used most readily and effectively by students and teachers, there is no single College library. Rather there is a continually changing number of libraries, some permanent, others temporary, to meet both general and specific needs.

Although the libraries are decentralized in location they are centrally administered. . . . In addition to catalogues in each permanent library, a union catalogue of the holdings of all libraries is maintained in a central library [p. 7].

With the general objectives of the College and the library organization set forth, chapter ii describes the ways in which the librarians become acquainted with the teaching program. Most of these meth-

ods are not new—in theory, at least—particularly at the secondary-school level. From the account given, however, the impression is gained that at Stephens they are practiced with regularity and with unreserved encouragement and administrative blessing.

A direct approach is made to the problem of becoming familiar with the teaching on the campus. Librarians are recognized as faculty members and participate in faculty conferences and faculty meetings, serve on "college-wide committees," and constantly have opportunities to work with their faculty colleagues on professional problems of mutual concern. Librarians study course outlines, participate in workshops, attend departmental meetings, confer frequently with instructors, visit and audit classes, in their systematic efforts to assist in library-instructional integration.

Chapter iii discusses the teaching activities of the library staff:

The high concept of librarianship in the College extends far beyond what Archibald MacLeish has called the "hat check boy in the parcel room of culture." . . .

It is not a passive role that the librarian plays. . . . She makes an active and positive contribution to the instructional program of the College. She recognizes as one of her most important obligations the training of students themselves to use the library efficiently. . . . What is more, she has the important opportunity for teaching at the particular time the student

is most actively feeling the need for help—a real psychological advantage [pp. 21-22].

Librarians teach in different ways. They plan instruction; they participate in classroom discussion and teaching; they hold conferences with students; they co-operate in the development and carrying out of instructional experiments; they teach through sponsoring extra-class organizations; and upon occasion they take complete responsibility for teaching an entire course [p. 38].

Chapter iv, "Using the Library in Teaching and Learning," presents illustrative accounts of how the library is used as a variegated resource for classes in contrast to dependence upon one or more textbooks. Attention is called to the desirability of integrating the use of both book and non-book materials in teaching and to the fact that, if the library is to be used effectively in the instructional program, not only must librarians be teachers, but teachers must be librarians.

Chapter v contains a brief statement of the implications of the Stephens College program for other schools and colleges. In summary, it is suggested:

The staff of every college must examine its own objectives, its facilities, and its educational program and in the light of such examination project plans for the effective utilization of library resources. In such a projection the support of the administration is essential; an expanded concept of library resources to include audio-visual ma-

terials is desirable; and the co-operative awareness of librarians and teachers to library-instructional opportunities is necessary [p. 69].

In the estimation of the reviewer, *The Librarian and the Teacher in General Education* makes at least three positive contributions to the philosophy of librarianship in the college area. These, furthermore, are not applicable merely to the level of "general education" but may be extended to all levels of college and university instruction. Although they cannot be described as innovations, they seem important because they embody theories which have as yet attained practical application in only a few scattered institutions.

First, this philosophy embraces and commends the ever expanding function of the college library in the provision of materials. It conceives of the library as a "materials center" rather than as an agency exclusively devoted to the dispensing of books. The idea of a "total library" to include all types of communicative media, which is being grasped and accepted all too slowly by college librarians, is here depicted as a successful actuality. This newer conception of the college library is logically sound and deserves the serious attention of college librarians and college administrators generally.

In the second place, the recognition of the academic equality of

the professionally trained college librarian and the college classroom instructor is a development which, in general, is long overdue. Given equal academic qualifications, it seems educationally expedient for these institutional staff members to function interchangeably in the instructional process. From a practical standpoint, one wishes that the authors had supplied information on the period of service given during a year and on the compensation received by college staff members of these two types.

Third, the library in its relation to the teaching program is brought into clear focus as a flexible instrument of instruction. It is adjusted to meet instructional needs, rather than the reverse as is true in many situations. This policy is practiced through the use of various devices, among which are the decentraliza-

tion of materials; the close co-operation of all staff in the distribution of materials, in experimentation with methods of teaching which demonstrate the unity of purpose for the library and the instructional program, and in the combined staff efforts to analyze the resources in order to fit them more precisely to the needs of the students.

That professionally trained members of college library staffs should be scholars among scholars is distinctly implied. Let the implications be observed by library-training agencies, as well as by college and library authorities. The volume can be read with profit by college administrators, instructors, and librarians.

MARION GRADY

BALL STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
MUNCIE, INDIANA

Selected References

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

KELLY, MARCELLA R. "A People's Curriculum for the Junior College," *Nation's Schools*, XLII (October, 1948), 30-31.

Asserts that the publicly controlled junior college is one of the most vital and potential needs of America's secondary-school structure. "It is as necessary in our time to the welfare of our nation as was the democratization of the high school at the turn of the century." The future of the public junior college, the author states, must not be planned, as the future of the high school

was planned in 1894, for the students who are academically inclined and whose parents are able to support them while they attend school. "To the contrary, the junior college must become, if it is to make a significant contribution to American culture, the people's college of tomorrow, open to all who have the capacity, desire, and need for higher education."

Kelly goes on to state that eventually, depending on the interest evidenced in it and the creative imagination of the men chosen to administer it, public junior-college education may well become tomorrow's an-

swer to the failure of today's high school. "The world itself has changed more between 1939 and 1948 than the high-school curriculum has changed from 1894 to the present time."

As a preface to the discussion of what should be taught in public junior colleges, the article points out that evidence is mounting to show that the chief contribution to our culture being made by the high school and the trade school today is the preparation of young people for college and the skilled trades, respectively. Consequently, secondary education as it is now organized does not prepare the majority of our youths for those semiprofessional occupations or businesses that require an extensive period of general education plus specialization in specific fields of interest.

"The junior college of the future, if it is to survive, must offer more than anything else a terminal type of program. It must be set up to serve the needs of the majority. Existing junior-college curriculums all too frequently are patterned after the conventional liberal arts programs." Curriculums for a people's college must be broad enough to meet the life-interests of the youth of all the people. "Those who construct curriculums at the junior-college level must yet explore the vast possibilities inherent in such functional areas as the following: radio and television . . . journalism . . . theater, radio and television arts . . . industrial management . . . decoration and design . . . human relations and homemaking . . . insurance . . . horticulture and floriculture, and numerous other fields that would similarly capture the creative imagination."

"A soundly organized junior college will serve more than youths; it will serve the adult minds of the community as well." To accomplish the latter, it is suggested that the program offered by the people's college must be broad, flexible, and timely.

Our hope for tomorrow is believed to lie in the publicly controlled community college; the promise inherent in this extension of education must be fulfilled if America is to produce a more competent, more satisfied, and more satisfying citizenry.

MEDSKER, LELAND L. "Changes in the Secondary School and Their Implications for Personnel Work," *School Review*, LVI (December, 1948), 575-84.

Identifies changing characteristics of the secondary-school levels of the American educational system and draws from them significant implications for personnel workers in the schools. Characteristics pointed out as having import for student personnel activity are: (1) The secondary school is changing, not static. (2) More young people of secondary-school age are attending school. (3) The span included in the secondary area is being extended downward and upward. (4) The school is becoming more life-centered. (5) The curriculum is undergoing fundamental changes and is becoming more functional.

From these observations four basic general implications of the present scheme of things in the secondary school are drawn. The first of these is the expansion of the personnel problem which has accompanied the expansion of enrolment. "The development of the student personnel program over the half-century has been interesting and significant because each time we took a step in the direction of broadening the scope of the secondary-school program, we also, by necessity, took a step in the direction of emphasizing the guidance function." Another implication noted is the need for guidance workers to maintain a broad outlook with respect to the over-all objectives of secondary education. "It is often true that personnel workers are unmindful of the fact that secondary education is rapidly being extended upward to include the junior-college years and thus their counseling and guidance activities in the high school are carried on with little regard to the place of the junior college in the total picture of secondary education. Some personnel workers may not be fully acquainted with, or concerned about, the place of general education and the core curriculum in today's school." The third observation noted is that there is need for appreciation, on the part of classroom teachers,

of the importance of personnel work. The final implication discussed is the need for co-operation between community agencies and schools. "If the secondary schools are to become life-centered, if they are fully to utilize community resources in making teaching real and functional, then obviously community agencies must co-operate."

There follow two specific suggestions for student-personnel programs in secondary schools. "The personnel program in the secondary school must be comprehensive." That is, if the secondary school is to attain its goal of developing the total individual, every phase of the student's life must be heeded and his program must be unified and related through guidance. The second suggestion is that the organization of the personnel program must be effective. "If we accept the principle that the organization of the personnel program includes classroom teachers, we may ask about the relationship between such teachers and the specialists. There will be a merging of effort, a program of co-operation. Specialists can do much to facilitate the work of the program carried on by teachers."

ORTON, DWAYNE. "The Community College—Fad or Fundamental?" *School and Society*, LXVIII (December 11, 1948), 401-5.

"For three decades the junior-college movement has been proving that it has the front-page rating, that it has an integrity of its own, that it is not junior to anything, and that it is an educational form with a particular social mission not fulfilled by any other institution." From this stated position, Orton goes on to review the evolution of educational purposes which have given impetus and significance to the emergence of the community college as an educational unit.

The community college, Orton predicts, will become the American folk school, the people's college of the greater democracy that we are building, because this significant educational movement has arisen in response to social needs. Among the social demands mentioned to support this point are (1) the

shift of our population toward a preponderantly adult world, bringing with it a socially disorganizing competition for jobs between youths and adults; (2) changes in occupational education attendant on shifting occupational patterns which produce a demand for a more highly trained and differently skilled worker, one more fully developed in resourcefulness, co-operativeness, adjustability, responsibility, reliability, etc. "The sum of the matter is this: The rise in productive efficiency plus the lift in the standard of living has not only produced more goods with a smaller proportion of the working population but, also, it has produced an ever enlarging field of trade and service occupations which cater to the convenience, travel, health, entertainment, social welfare, and culture of the American people." The development of democracy in industry, furthermore, demands that the worker understand the social values of his occupation.

"What then," Orton asks, "are some of the principles on which vocational education should be developed on the community-college level?" In answer it is pointed out that the community college must not continue the traditional but false division between vocational and general education. The experience of the years since the depression has led to the conviction that education for a socially competent citizenship must now be infused into vocational training in greater proportion than ever before. The community college, furthermore, must relate its program to community needs. A high premium must be placed on co-ordination of the college and employment outlets; lay committees on curriculum planning, placement, guidance, and follow-up are essential. The need for a nation-wide program of occupational research, guidance, and placement is also suggested.

"Most of us recognize the fact that the practice of occupational training on this level is preponderantly a guidance problem. One of the basic aims of the community college is to fit the education to the student rather than fit the student to the institution." To accomplish these educational ends, the community must become the laboratory for

vocational exploration and citizenship training.

The final recommendation advanced is that the community college must serve the ground swell of interest in adult and continuing education—a suggestion which is linked closely to the emphasis on community planning currently spreading through American communities. In the adult-education program the author envisions the supreme opportunity for the community college to serve the needs of the people.

The full scope of potentiality of service to be rendered by the community college is summarized in the final comprehensive statement: "The community college is designed to supply the continued education and social custody of youth beyond the high school. It is a proved answer to the problem posed by the growing void between the twelfth year of formal public schooling and the opportunity to assume the obligations of independent adulthood. Higher occupational education on the intermediate levels between the trades and the professions infused with higher general education for social competency is provided by the community college. A closer union of education and the working community in juvenile and adult training is a bulwark of democracy against the acids of fascism and communism."

WHEAT, LEONARD B. "Curriculum Articulation for Secondary and Higher Education," *School Review*, LVI (March, 1948), 146-55.

Scrutinizes the development of the problem of articulation of institutions of secondary and higher education, discusses the nature of the difficulties encountered, and proposes certain measures which could be taken to alleviate the situation. Curriculum articulation between secondary schools and colleges, the author states, is a long-time problem that has become increasingly important and now presses for speedy solution. "The solution is likely to result in permanent modifications, not only in curriculums, but also in the organizational structure of the American school system."

Though it has been recognized as an educational problem since before the 1920's,

Wheat holds that most of the discussion of the problem has been confined to identifying it, charting its history, and saying that something should be done about it. "A few studies were made and reported which sought to improve one or two aspects of articulation." Before progressing into the discussion, the author defines articulation as "a vertical tie-up of a course to an earlier or later course, and of a given level of instruction to another level. Articulation implies the close coupling of courses and educational experiences in sequential manner for the purpose of obtaining continuity of student development."

Five facets of the problem of curriculum articulation are identified: (1) need for observation of the principle that sound purposes should determine curriculum divisions; (2) the necessity for organizational structure to fit curriculum needs; (3) the development of courses which provide clear sequence of learning experiences without continuation of a multiplicity of overlapping offerings; (4) the requirement that methods of instruction and standards of achievement be adopted progressively; (5) the demand for orientation of curriculums around sound guidance—that the curriculum be a "guidance-focused curriculum."

Attention then turns to trends and proposals for obtaining articulation. Wheat expresses surprise that his investigations had revealed "no organization, group, or individual that had formulated comparatively separate sets of aims for secondary education and for higher education." His first proposal is that some organization attempt this task.

A second proposal advanced toward the improvement of curriculum articulation is that administrative organization of educational institutions be altered to fit the purposes and functions defined for each division of the curriculum stairway. "This proposal arises from observation of what already may be a trend for the future." There is a trend, Wheat says, toward incorporation of the kindergarten into the elementary schools of the nation to establish a seven-grade unit and toward a belief that secondary education reaches through the chronological ages of about twelve to about twenty, or the school levels of Grade VII through XIV.



State of California
GOVERNOR'S OFFICE
SACRAMENTO

EARL WARREN
GOVERNOR

Dr. Jesse Bogue, Executive Secretary
American Association of Junior Colleges
Fairmont Hotel
San Francisco

Dear Dr. Bogue:

California is happy to serve as host for the 29th annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges. I want to join with the other citizens of our state, and particularly of San Francisco, in welcoming you and your fellow delegates.

We are proud of our Junior Colleges as part of the State educational system in California. We have tried to create, and it will be our purpose to maintain, educational facilities here that will adequately meet the needs of our children and young people as they train themselves for citizenship in a free society. It is also part of our program to provide for adult education courses, and the Junior Colleges have done yeoman service in this regard.

I am sure that your convention will be both profitable and enjoyable. It seems particularly appropriate that an organization with a true pioneering spirit should be meeting in California during one of our centennial years.

With best wishes, I am

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Earl Warren".

Governor

Governor Warren's Message to the Meeting

Program of the Twenty-ninth Annual Meeting

Hotel Fairmont, San Francisco, California

Wednesday Evening, February 23, 1949

6:30 INFORMAL DINNER—JOHN L. LOUNSBURY, *Presiding*

Thursday, February 24, 1949

8:15 REGISTRATION

9:45 GENERAL SESSION—PRESIDENT LELAND L. MEDSKER, *Presiding*

Music—A Cappella Choir, City College of San Francisco, FLOSSITA BADGER, Director

Address of Welcome—ROY E. SIMPSON, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of California

Presidential Address—“Between Two Decades in the Association,” LELAND L. MEDSKER

Address—“New Frontiers for Education,” HOMER P. RAINES, President, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri

2:00 SECTIONAL MEETINGS—Arranged by Research and Service Committees

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS. FREDERICK J. MARSTON, *Presiding*.
BASIL H. PETERSON, *Chairman*

General Topic—“Junior-College Building Facilities and Standards”

Address—“Junior-College Buildings and Facilities,” Summary of Survey Made by Research Office, BASIL H. PETERSON

Address—“The Junior-College Plant,” Summary Report of the California Junior-College Plant Committee, CHARLES BURSCH, Assistant Division Chief in Charge of School Planning, California State Department of Education

Panel Discussion—“Implications of the Report on the Junior-College Plant,” GEORGE H. BELL, F. M. COOK, H. E. JENKINS, HUGH G. PRICE, HORACE J. WUBBEN

STUDENT PERSONNEL PROBLEMS. CHARLES S. MORRIS, *Presiding*
Address—“Potential Significance of Student Personnel Service in a Junior College,” J. ANTHONY HUMPHREYS

Address—“Recommended Practices in Student Personnel Service for Junior-College and High-School Relationships,” WILLIAM A. BLACK

Address—“Recommended Practices in Student Personnel Service for Placement and Follow-up of Students,” CHARLOTTE D. MEINECKE

Address—“Purposes, Operation, and Status of the United States National Student Association,” ERSKINE B. CHILDERS, Chairman, California-Nevada-Hawaii Region, United States National Student Association

Address—"Fundamental Philosophy and Policies of Student Government," ROBERT N. TROUTMAN

4:00 DEMONSTRATIONS OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

6:30 DINNER FOR PRIVATELY CONTROLLED JUNIOR COLLEGES—
GLADYS BECKETT JONES, *Presiding*

Address—"Unfitting Women for Life: Reflections on Their Higher Education," LYNN TOWNSEND WHITE, Jr., President, Mills College, Oakland, California

Friday, February 25, 1949

9:45 GENERAL SESSION—PRESIDENT LELAND L. MEDSKER, *Presiding*
Music—A Cappella Choir, College of Marin, CLINTON LEWIS, Director
Election of Officers for 1949

Report on Research and *Junior College Journal*—LEONARD V. KOOS

COMMITTEE ON CURRICULUM AND ADULT EDUCATION.

CURTIS BISHOP, *Presiding*. HENRY W. LITTLEFIELD, *Chairman*

General Topic—"A Program of Family-Life Education"

Address—"Wanted: Family-Life Education in the Junior College," RALPH G. ECKERT, Consultant in Parent Education, California State Department of Education

Address—"Family Life Education as Presented on the Junior College Level," MRS. GLADYS BECKETT JONES, President, Garland School, Boston, Massachusetts

Address—"Wanted: Family-Life Education in the Junior College," GERTRUDE LAWS, Director of Education for Women, Pasadena City Schools, Pasadena, California

12:30 REGIONAL LUNCHEONS

Middle States—EDWARD G. SCHLAEFER, *Presiding*

North Central—MARVIN C. KNUDSON, *Presiding*

Southern and New England—JOHN GRAY and CHARLOTTE D. MEIN-ECKE, *Presiding*

Western and Canadian—JOHN L. LOUNSBURY and HAROLD HOEGLUND, *Presiding*

2:30 SECTIONAL MEETINGS—Arranged by Research and Service Committees

TEACHER PREPARATION. EUGENE B. CHAFFEE, *Presiding*. T. D. SCHINDLER, *Chairman*

General Topic—"Teacher Welfare and Training"

Report on Studies of Research Office—(1) "Principles That Enter into a Sound Salary Schedule," (2) "Principles That Should Be Embodied in a Good Retirement System," S. V. MARTORANA

"What Constitutes a Good Graduate Program for Preparation of Junior-College Teachers and Administrators?" Introduction by C.

C. COLVERT, followed by panel discussion by LAWRENCE L. BETHEL; WILLIAM A. BLACK; AUBREY A. DOUGLASS, Associate Superintendent of Public Instruction, Chief of Division of State Colleges and Teacher Education, State of California; LLOYD A. GARRISON, Dean, Graduate School, University of Denver; MALCOLM S. MACLEAN, Professor of Education, University of California at Los Angeles

LEGISLATION. EUGENE S. FARLEY, *Presiding*. C. C. COLVERT, *Chairman*
Address—"State Surveys of Higher Education," HUGH G. PRICE
Reports on State Legislative Programs as Related to State Surveys—
California, FRANK B. LINDSAY; *Colorado*, MARVIN C. KNUDSON;
Idaho, G. O. KILDOW; *Illinois*, LELAND L. MEDSKER; *Iowa*,
CHARLES E. HILL; *Minnesota*, R. W. GODDARD; *Mississippi*, L. O.
TODD; *Washington*, D. GRANT MORRISON; *Wyoming*, M. F. GRIFFITH
Discussion of the reports by members of the Committee on Legislation
—C. C. COLVERT, G. H. VANDE BOGART, HUGH G. PRICE

4:30 DEMONSTRATIONS OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Saturday, February 26, 1949

7:45 PHI DELTA KAPPA BREAKFAST—B. LAMAR JOHNSON, *Presiding*
Address—LLOYD A. GARRISON, Dean, Graduate School, University of
Denver

9:45 GENERAL SESSION—PRESIDENT LELAND L. MEDSKER, *Presiding*
Music—A Cappella Choir, San Mateo Junior College, FREDERICK
ROEHR, Director

Business Session

Report of the Executive Secretary—JESSE P. BOGUE

Address—"Education, the Creator of New Frontiers of Government,"
WILLIAM H. CONLEY, Junior College Specialist, United States Office
of Education

6:30 ANNUAL BANQUET—PRESIDENT LELAND L. MEDSKER, *Presiding*
Music—A Cappella Choir, San Bernardino Valley College, C. DALE
ROBBINS, Director
Address—"Equipping Youth To Create New Frontiers," HARRY K.
NEWBURN, President, University of Oregon

10:00 ADJOURNMENT